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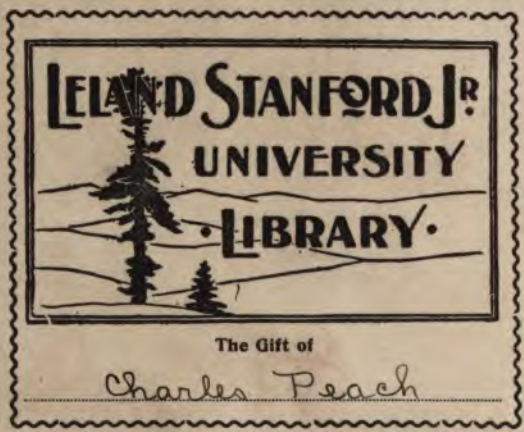

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A NEW

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

BY

LEVI SEELEY, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF PEDAGOGY, IN THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON, N.J.

HINDS & NOBLE, Publishers

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PREFACE.

Possibly no feature of the vocation of teaching gives the young teacher greater solicitude as he anticipates his future work than that of successfully managing his school. To do this requires judgment, skill, and tact, together with as complete a knowledge of the art of school management as he is able to acquire. The teacher's knowledge of subject-matter and of general pedagogy may be comprehensive, and his skill in the details of method may be excellent, and yet a complete failure may follow because of his inability to manage children and properly to conduct a school. Hence, the teacher who has failed to equip himself in this field jeopardizes his success and invites disaster.

This book is intended chiefly for students in normal schools and training classes, and for young teachers who have been unable to avail themselves of the privileges of a course in a professional school, but who are compelled to prepare themselves independently for the work of teaching. Hence, I have endeavored to be very explicit, and to employ many concrete illustrations drawn from a long experience in teaching. Doubtless experienced teachers also will find profit in a study of these pages; not so much from a presentation of new material as from a treatment which attempts to determine the underlying principles. Very often teachers have followed practices — good or bad — without knowing why they have done so. Their peda-

gogical practices would be far more effective if they were to be sure of the ground on which they stand. There is a great difference between following a correct practice through accident or because others have been known to follow it successfully, and in following a practice that is based on sound principles. Therefore teachers of long experience may be helped to conform the management of their schools to sound educational doctrine. Reading circles and teachers' clubs also will find an abundance of material for discussion. The leading practical questions concerning the internal direction of the school are presented for their consideration.

It is very likely that many of the discussions presented will be criticised as commonplace. But that which has become commonplace to the initiated is novel to the beginner. After carefully considering every discussion offered, I can think of none that I would not have welcomed as a young teacher had such been offered to me — unless it be some of the subjects that no one will denominate as commonplace. Many of the experiences here related were gained at the expense of my pupils, and, at the same time, at great cost to me. I would save other young teachers from the errors which I made; hence the freedom with which these experiences are detailed.

But it will be seen that there is also a theory — a philosophical basis — to every theme treated throughout the book, which, I hope, is apparent to all. Therefore less attention is paid to devices and plans of managing a school than to principles. With certain principles to guide him, the teacher will be able to form his own plans and employ devices suited to particular situations and adapted to his own individuality.

The experiences here presented are the results of many years of school-work in almost every field of pedagogical activity. That work began in a district school with seventy-five pupils of every degree of advancement, and in ages ranging from five to twenty-one years — a most advantageous place in which to gain experience and acquire skill in the management of children. This was succeeded by varied positions as principal and superintendent. Finally, it has been my privilege to present year after year the subject of school management to hundreds of students in the normal school. In this latter work the purpose has been to give the most practical and concrete presentation of the subject so that the young teachers may gain confidence in their ability to conduct and control a school, and, at the same time, possess a correct theory of school management. The needs of a teacher in charge of a mixed school are held prominently in view throughout this book, although teachers in graded schools also will find help through the experiences and principles presented.

A work on school management should consider the character of the teacher, school discipline, good order, proper habits, correct morals, relation of the school to the community, as well as other matters connected with the internal affairs of the school, such as promotion, classification of the school, the daily program, school incentives, the conducting of the recitations, relation between principals and assistants, school hygiene, etc. In a word, it should, as its name implies, deal with the working of the school rather than with methods, courses of study, or the philosophy of education. This is the view that is held in this treatise.

It should be mentioned that some of the topics considered in my "Foundations of Education," as well as some

of the illustrations employed there, are used in this book. If any apology for this is necessary, I may say that some of the chapters in "Foundations" have a direct bearing upon school management and therefore could not be omitted from this book. Where the illustrations given in the earlier book were needed in this, I have not hesitated to employ them. It is hoped that the reader of both will not find a sameness in the discussions, or that the repetitions are unprofitable.

It affords me great pleasure in this connection to express my thanks to Superintendent J. W. Carr of Anderson, Ind., for his permission to use his course in moral instruction in the Appendix; to Miss Kate D. Stout and Professor Frank H. Scobey of the Trenton Normal School, to Superintendent John Enright of Freehold, N.J., and to Hon. Charles J. Baxter, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Trenton, N.J., for most valuable advice concerning various chapters; and also to Dr. Elias F. Carr, another colleague in the Trenton Normal School, for most painstaking, searching, and judicious criticisms of the whole work. To many others who by correspondence, conversation, or advice have encouraged and assisted me in the preparation of this book, I hereby express my grateful appreciation.

L. SEELEY.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
TRENTON, N.J.

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A NEW SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

CHAPTER I.

THE PERSONALITY OF THE TEACHER.

"As the teacher is, so is the school." The greatest work that can engage the thought and invite the activity of man is the education of the young. Upon the solution of this problem, in its broadest sense, depends the future welfare of the individual, the home, the community, the nation, the world. If man is to reach the highest state of personal happiness and usefulness, as well as to contribute his greatest possible service to mankind, he must be properly educated. If the home is to be a "paradise on earth," where husband and wife, parents and children, brothers and sisters, mutually help and strengthen one another, it will be because education, obtained somewhere and somehow, has laid the foundations. If the community is to be moral and religious; if there is to be a high sense of intellectual and social responsibility; if pure living, noble ideals, honest enterprise, and the advancement of civilization, are to be encouraged and fostered, there must be a sound and correct educational sentiment. If the evils and dangers of political "bossism" and corrupt civil government are to be eliminated; if we are to escape the destruction that has befallen other attempts at free government; if our republic

is to stand, we must raise the standard of intelligence and morality through universal education. An absolute monarchy may sustain itself by means of its standing armies, but a free government can survive only when its citizens, upon whom its stability rests, are intelligent and pure.

The school-teacher is the "high priest of the future." Upon him, more than upon any one else, rests the responsibility of education. Hence his is the greatest work that can engage the attention of man.

In the early history of the race, education was conducted by the parents in the home. What the father did, the son learned to do. In the primitive life, when men lived in tents, obtained food and clothing from the chase or from their herds, which they drove from valley to mountain-side for pasture; and where the sum of knowledge was included in ability to defend themselves, to care for their flocks, to take from Nature's generous bounties what she freely offered, the father could easily impart to his son all that he needed to know. To strike tent, to elude or successfully to cope with an enemy, to care for the herds, to prepare their flesh for food, and their skins for clothing and shelter, to bring down game, constituted the education of every boy, and the father needed no help in teaching his son. He "learned to do by doing," a pedagogical principle which modern educators are attempting to apply. But when the world became more populous, when division of labor was necessary, when the demands of civilization multiplied so that man did not have so much leisure, and when the child had to be taught other things than his father's occupation, teachers were needed. These were furnished for many centuries from the priesthood, whose work was dominated by the Church, and is still in many countries.

The State and Education. — As the State more and more assumes the duty of providing education for all, there is a tendency to recognize teaching as an independent profession, which, under the State, must take upon itself the responsibility of education. If the future citizen is to be patriotic, loyal, law-abiding, progressive, ambitious, intelligent, pure, moral, possessed of lofty ideals, zealous of good works, responsive to the demands of duty, conscientious, it will be because of the inspiration he receives from his teacher. Therefore, to no profession, and to no class of men, is committed so high a mission as is committed to the school-teacher.

High Calling of the Teacher. — No one should enter upon this work without an appreciation of its great opportunity, without a sense of the responsibility involved as a leader and instructor of young children. Every teacher ought to prefer his to every other calling, ought to have the spirit of Froebel, who, in speaking of his first experience in the schoolroom, said: "It seemed as if I had found something I had never known, but always longed for, always missed; as if my life had at last discovered its native element. I felt as happy as the fish in the water, the bird in the air." Or that of Pestalozzi, who could not be flattered by offers of political preferment, but summed up his soul's longing by the words, "I want to be a schoolmaster." Or of Thomas Arnold in his work with the boys of Rugby; or of Francis W. Parker, who has been described as a statesman, a philosopher, an evangelist, a soldier, and a martyr. With the example, inspiration, and spirit of such great teachers before him, the young man or woman may well ask the question, "Do I possess the qualities that one must have

to be a worthy teacher?" No one should enter upon the profession of teaching, without first asking this question.

¶ **Qualities that the Teacher Should Possess.** — 1. *He must be genuine, whole-souled, honest, manly, true.* — I use the pronoun in the generic sense — a woman teacher must possess these qualities as truly as a man. If the teacher is lacking in the qualities that belong to genuine manhood, it will not be long before the many watchful eyes that are constantly fixed upon him will discover that fact. Children cannot be deceived in this respect. There may be lack of approved method, there may be dearth of knowledge, there may even be weak discipline, but none of these is so fatal as a lack of honest manliness. All other deficiencies can be corrected, but if genuine character is lacking in a man, he should never seek to be a school-teacher. The fearful effects of a teacher wanting in genuine moral uprightness, who must come into daily contact with young lives, cannot be estimated. A manly teacher will lift his pupils towards high ideals of manhood. It was the genuineness of Thomas Arnold, rather than his methods of instruction, that made such a profound impression upon the boys of Rugby, and sent them out to be the moral and political leaders of England since Arnold's time. One hears little about the curriculum or the methods of instruction employed, but a great deal about Thomas Arnold, Rugby's great and beloved head-master. Some one has said: "It will be told in after-days how there was once a heaven-born head-master, by name Thomas Arnold, who, ruling at Rugby, taught the boys to be good Christians, true gentlemen, and be merry, mischievous boys still." "How can I hear what you say, when what you are is continually

thundering in my ears?" says Emerson. Mary Lyon's ideal of education found expression in a consecrated Christian womanhood, and it is said that "so completely did the ideal of her own life become the ideal of their lives, that most of the girls went out as Christian women. Wherever they went they carried this spirit. Wherever they taught they set up a new Mount Holyoke, a Christian seminary. Wherever they married they set up a Christian home."

Well says Lowell that "the spirit of the teacher is more than his method, and that person is the most valuable in the schoolroom who fills it with sweet reasonableness." Felix Adler remarks: "The personality of the master of the school is the chief factor of moral influence in it."

This manly spirit will show itself also in the teacher's attitude towards his colaborers. It will prevent him from undermining or defaming others, from seeking to displace them, from being envious of their success. How much the teaching profession is in need of the loyal, hearty, sympathetic co-operation of its members! It ought to be impossible to find a teacher who will consent to supplant another on any terms or under any circumstances. Only when a position is vacant, or it is definitely decided that it is to become vacant, should a teacher allow himself to be a candidate for the place. This will command the respect of school boards and of the community; it will raise teachers in public esteem; it will ultimately advance salaries, and it will prevent injustice being done to worthy fellow-workers. Some years ago a gentleman visited my school, and in course of conversation said to me: "There is a rumor abroad that you do not intend to remain here after the close of this year. Is that true?" I replied

that it was. "Have you any objection to my applying for the position?" he asked. I informed him that I had none. This was true courtesy, and I never forgot it. No one possessing the genuine, manly character so essential in one to whom is committed such a sacred responsibility as that of forming the characters of young children could be guilty of impairing the usefulness or injuring the prospects of another engaged in the same work.

In another chapter (p. 241), while discussing the teacher's duty to his profession, I shall show by concrete illustrations how a failure to live up to this principle reacts upon the one who perpetrates the wrong, and gives him the just deserts of his meanness.

2. *He must possess patience, sympathy, and love for children.* — The teacher's work is not a bed of roses; there are trials many, discouragements, difficulties of daily occurrence, and things that disturb the equanimity of the most patient. This work would be intolerable to one lacking the divine gift of patience. It is not that the children are vicious; most of them are good. If they are not good, it is because their past environment or training has been bad. But they are mischievous, restless, full of life, and they often find it hard to submit to the necessary requirements of school discipline. Here is where the necessity for patience is manifest. Even when the children are vicious, supreme patience may overcome this evil and win them to right conduct. An impatient teacher only aggravates the evil and arouses a spirit of antagonism and rebellion. Every teacher will do well to study the life of the Great Teacher, who, "when He was reviled, reviled not again," and who showed a spirit of sublimest patience under the malicious treatment of His enemies such as the

world has elsewhere never witnessed. Even with His beloved disciples how often did He exercise infinite patience!

The teacher must also possess love for children. "I hate children, and would never teach a day if I were not obliged to," said a teacher, when her superintendent criticised her treatment of the pupils. Such a person ought never to be a teacher. There must be a love for childhood, a sympathy with its interests, a spirit that can enter heartily and sincerely into its joys and sorrows. I do not mean by this that the teacher should "gush" over children, — nothing ultimately disgusts them more than that, — but a genuine, natural sympathy that brings heart in touch with heart. Possessing this, the teacher will not only be able to reach the inner life, the best and noblest, that which is the *character* of the child, but through this he will reach the intellectual as well as the other sides of the child's development. This love for children, seeking to do them good, and finding pleasure in their society, must be innate and spontaneous. The person who lacks these qualities should never attempt to be a teacher.

3. *He should possess a happy disposition.* — I have seen teachers whose forbidding countenance, whose sour disposition, whose hard and rigid manner, whose acerbic characteristics, chilled the very atmosphere around them, and imbittered the life of all who came in contact with them. Never enough sunshine could come through the windows on even the brightest days to make their schoolroom cheerful, and woe to the unfortunate pupils when the sky was overclouded! Instead of sympathy for the sorrows of childhood, joy in its happiness, patience with the erring,

helpful cheer for those in difficulty, stimulating encouragement for the discouraged, there were sarcasm, querulous criticism, fault-finding, and bitterness. What parent would knowingly commit a loved and loving child for five hours a day to the care of such a teacher? Whatever be the qualities of a teacher, one who lacks "sunshine in the soul," who does not possess the "milk of human kindness," should never be allowed to teach. There are days in the schoolroom that "try men's souls," dark, forbidding, cloudy, heavy, without a gleam of sunshine, when teachers must bring to bear the power to rise above external conditions, and radiate cheerfulness from the abundance of gladness and good-will in their own hearts.

There is a great deal of common sense as well as educational philosophy in the attitude of the superintendent who insisted that the qualities of disposition that make young women sought for as wives, the attractive, winning, happy charm about girls that leads the opposite sex to seek them, are the characteristics that he required in his teachers. Hence, he said: "I do not want teachers that can never get married." By this he does not mean that he desires to lose his teachers by marriage, but that he wants those who possess a happy disposition. With such an endowment, there is nothing in school-life that should darken or imbitter the teacher's life. Indeed, the atmosphere of the schoolroom and the contact with innocent young life should write benevolence on the brow and kindness in the heart, so that the teacher's face should grow lovelier and his heart more tender as the years go by. Such was the effect upon Pestalozzi, upon Thomas Arnold, upon Norman A. Calkins, upon Dr. E. A. Sheldon, and such will be the effect upon every teacher who carries a sunny disposition

into the schoolroom. The very smile of such a teacher is a blessing and a benediction to all who come under his influence.

4. *He must be free from any physical impediment that would interfere with his usefulness.*—Every person who enters upon a course of preparation for teaching should undergo a physical examination, to determine his ability to stand the arduous strain of the teacher's life. For teaching is arduous, requiring good health and a strong body. Not that the teacher is selected for brawn as in the olden time, when the large boys felt called upon to challenge the schoolmaster's physical strength, in order to test his fitness to keep the school, but because he needs good health to enable him to discharge his duties without worry or weakness. Physical health is essential, so that there may be the cheerfulness, the vivacity, the fertility of resource both in method and in discipline, the maintenance of interest, and the complete mastery of all school details. The teacher should possess reserve strength to rise above the petty annoyances that are sure to come, and to preserve a perfect equanimity of temper and manner. The genial disposition, which we have already shown to be essential, is hard to maintain when the body is weak or diseased. Strength of body gives consciousness of power, both in preserving order and in imparting instruction.

The State invests capital in the training of teachers, and therefore has a right to expect a reasonable term of service. More important than this, the person who invests far more than the State — his capital, time, energy — has a right to expect a sufficient term of service adequately to recompense him for the outlay; and if his health is such as to preclude the possibility of this, he should be informed

of the fact, and advised to choose some other vocation. It is very sad for one who has thus prepared himself for a life-work, perhaps by great sacrifices, to find that the expenditure has been in vain, because of a breakdown in health. Therefore great care should be taken by those in authority to ascertain the physical condition of all candidates for normal-school work. Kindness is shown not only to them, but justice is done to the children who may be their pupils and whom the State is bound to protect.

5. *He must be capable of thinking and speaking clearly and logically.* — Doubtless defects in this respect may be largely remedied by training, but there are some persons so sadly lacking in these qualities that no amount of training can overcome the fault. Not that a person must be loquacious in order to become a teacher, — the work of the teacher has a tendency to make him talkative, — but one who is diffident or hesitating in either thought, speech, or action is not likely to succeed in this field. The power to express one's self accurately and clearly is vital to the teacher. One must be able not only to see a truth clearly, but also must possess the power to impart it to others. Logical power, clearness of conception, will enable one to grasp the essentials and make them stand out vividly that the pupils will be able to seize and hold the lesson. This power is most important to one who would become a teacher.

6. *He must be an altruist.* — It has been said that "to be a successful teacher needs first of all a heart yearning for the good of others. Let us consider one of the methods employed by the Great Teacher, the model of every one who would achieve success." The Word tells us of Him that "He went about doing good." His ministry did not

shrink from most menial offices; and His final sacrifice, that of his own life, was sublimely complete — "He gave His life for others." It was the noblest example of altruism in the history of the world. No person should seek to be a teacher whose motive is selfish. There is nothing in the vocation to invite a person of such a spirit, but there is everything to invite one who seeks the welfare of his fellow-men. No profession offers so wide a field for the practice of true benevolence, such an opportunity to be a blessing to mankind, such a scope for the exercise of the spirit of the Divine Master, so broad and fertile a means for doing good, as that of teaching.

These are the qualities that the teacher must possess, and, possessing them, he will not be lacking in the strong personality that impresses itself forcibly, effectively, and permanently upon the minds and hearts of those whom he teaches. To those imbued with the spirit of humble self-sacrifice, of sincere consecration, of wide-reaching benevolence, of lofty patriotism and disinterested altruism, the field is open and the invitation hearty. Such teachers are wanted everywhere; and to such, there is an abundant and satisfying reward. They are indeed to be "the high priests of the future."

In the foregoing, I have sought to present ideal requirements. In the nature of the case, there is a great scarcity of teachers who reach the ideal, and therefore a great deal of teaching must still be done by those of less capacity. Let the standard, however, be high, and let all teachers seek to attain to the highest ideals.

CHAPTER II.

PREPARATION AND RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TEACHER.

In the foregoing chapter we have seen that the teacher must possess certain natural qualities. The mere possession of these qualities, however, does not make a teacher. In the sense that these qualities are innate, the teacher is "born." They are fundamental, but in addition to these there must be suitable training, and this training is twofold, (1) *academic*, and (2) *professional*.

Academic Training. — There must first be a sound foundation of general knowledge. The teacher must know many subjects besides those that he is to teach. Education has been defined as the process of cancelling the difference in knowledge that exists between two persons, between teacher and taught. Now, if the difference is slight, the learner has but little to hope for; while if the difference is great, the possibilities that await the learner are just so much the greater. Hence if the school trustee thinks that his neighbor's daughter, who has merely completed the district-school course and secured a third-grade certificate, knows enough to teach the little children of the school, and will answer as well as the thoroughly equipped teacher, he makes a fundamental mistake. In the one case there is but little difference between the knowledge of the teacher and the pupils, while in the other the possibilities are immeasurably greater, because the teacher

possesses so much more to give. It is a great mistake to think that "any one will do for little children." The fact is, the greatest skill and tact and knowledge and professional fitness are necessary in teaching young children, because of their immaturity and their inability to help themselves. If unskilled teaching is to be employed anywhere, let it be with older children who can think and act for themselves, and who do not depend so much on the teacher. The gravest danger as to method lies in the earliest years of the school course, where the children are started on their way to an education, and not in the later years. For this reason wise school boards and superintendents are especially careful in the choice of their primary teachers. They are careful in regard to their academic as well as their professional preparation.

The least academic training that the teacher should possess is that of the full high-school course or its equivalent. While he may never be called upon to teach some of the subjects he has mastered, they furnish a reserve force, supply a fund to draw upon, give breadth of outlook, and open up a comprehensive view of the whole matter of the education of the child. The teacher with a broad academic training is less likely to fall into ruts in his teaching or his habits of thought. A broader culture than the high-school requirement is necessary for teachers of the advanced grades. Many high schools already demand that their teachers shall be college-bred, and doubtless this or its equivalent will soon be a universal requirement. Thorough mastery of the academic knowledge of subjects is absolutely essential, and no methods or schoolroom device or superficial tactics can take its place. More teachers fail from ignorance of the subject-matter

than from any other cause. Many normal schools recognize the need of an excellent foundation of general culture by requiring all candidates for admission to possess a training equal to that of a first-class high school.[1]

Professional Training. — But if teaching is a profession, academic culture alone will not suffice, even though it be a college training, any more than it would suffice for entrance to the profession of law, medicine, or theology. There should also be the special, technical training in the science and art of teaching, else the teacher must learn the technique of his profession by experimentation in the schoolroom. This is expensive to the community that pays the bills, and far more expensive and dangerous to the pupils that are practised upon. As reasonable to put a sick child into the hands of a young man without any medical training, on the ground that he has graduated from college, as to put the school into the hands of a college graduate without pedagogical training. Each would be obliged to grope in the dark until through experience he had learned the art of his calling, and in every case the sufferer is the one whom the State is bound to protect, — the child. While mistakes may not be so obvious and so

[1] See Fitch's "Lectures on Teaching" and Gordy's "Growth and Development of the Normal School Idea," for a further elaboration of this argument.

1. A teacher cannot teach *all* he knows.

2. Ample knowledge of a subject makes a teacher free to encourage his pupils to ask questions.

3. Increases his power to illustrate.

4. Enables him to distinguish the important from the unimportant.

5. Insures his interest in his subject, and thereby tends to develop interest in his pupils.

6. Gives him courage to say, "I don't know."

immediately dangerous in the one case as in the other, the evil is none the less real.

The professional training of the teacher should consist of a study of psychology and child study, history of education, methods of teaching, school management, school law and school economics, practice-work, and philosophy of education. With these two sides of preparation, the academic and the professional, the equipment of the teacher is completed, and he is prepared to go forth and add to these the experience of the schoolroom. This experience should then be intelligently directed, and the errors committed will be reduced to a minimum. At least all has been done for the young teacher that the professional school can do, and it now rests with himself to prove his fitness by his works. If he makes mistakes, as doubtless he will, they will be no more frequent than those of the novice in any other profession. The State in its training, and the school board in its selection of teachers so prepared, have guarded well the doors of entrance to this vocation. Thus the interests of the pupils have been protected, and it may be confidently expected that the mistakes made will be few.

Responsibility of the Teacher. — No one should enter lightly upon the work of teaching. Motives should be carefully analyzed, the responsibility weighed, and a decision arrived at only after a full understanding of the importance of the work and belief that the requisite qualities are possessed. While it is a great responsibility, it is also a great opportunity. I would have every person who enters upon the life of a teacher feel that to him it is the noblest of all human endeavors, the greatest of all privi-

leges, the most sacred duty that he can undertake. No one need ever apologize for being a school-teacher, and one who is disposed to do so had better seek some other means of gaining a livelihood. Nor should the community despise the teacher. Surely parents who think well enough of the character and attainments of a person to commit their children to his care, closest intimacy, and personal contact for daily instruction, should not refuse him the intimacy of their social lives and their homes merely because he is a school-teacher. The very fact that he is the teacher of their children should open their homes and their hearts to him, and if he is not worthy of this, he is unworthy to occupy such a responsible position. Every teacher should be trained in the refinements of polite life as well as in the culture that marks the gentleman or the lady. Possessing these qualities, there is no just reason for his exclusion from the society of the most refined. I do not mean that the teacher should be a so-called "society" man; if there is an excuse for anybody occupying such a position, surely there is none for the teacher. But he should possess the ease, the genuine politeness, the true courtesy, which fit him to associate with the best in the community, and the best in the community should open their doors to him without reserve, as they would to persons in other professions. And so, glorying in his work, let every teacher accept the full responsibility of his office, and seek to discharge its duties with faithfulness and efficiency.

But what are the responsibilities that fall upon the teacher?

1. *The responsibility of personal example.* — No one can measure the awful consequences of an evil example on the

part of the teacher. On the other hand, a teacher of pure life, clean habits, noble character, is the most potent, the most influential, the most wholesome, the most powerful, agency for good in the community. The Christian minister would stand next in influencing the lives of children; but the teacher has the advantage of him in the closer contact with children, in the hours they are under his care, in the greater number that are in his charge. The minister's parish is largely limited to the attendants of his own church, while the teacher's includes all children of every church and of no church. Personal example is more effective than sermons or lectures, and vain is the instruction in morals if it is not supplemented by the life of the teacher. The most potent factor in teaching morals in our schools is the personality of the great body of high-minded, conscientious, pure-lived, Christian teachers. Whatever system of ethical training may be introduced in our school courses, nothing can relieve the teacher from his personal moral responsibility. Nor does the influence of the teacher always cease with morals. Without a particle of sectarian instruction, without any direct allusion to religious life and practice, by his own belief in sacred things, by his spirit of reverence for God, by his silent attitude towards religion while in the school, and his active participation in its duties out of school, the teacher becomes a mighty force for spiritual teaching. I have known teachers whose lives were such that no other man in the community exercised so powerful and direct an influence for religion as they. And there was not a parent of whatever creed that did not feel that the education of his children was in safe hands.

The teacher cannot conceal his true character from the

many searching eyes and inquisitive minds that are constantly studying him. "Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh;" and if the heart is overflowing with good-will or cankered with malice, it will not be long before the children discover the truth. When the teacher has secured the confidence of his pupils, his code of morals will become their code, his ideas of life will become their ideas. I knew a young principal whose personality was so strong that his hold upon his pupils, and through them upon the community, became so great that for years he was the natural leader of every movement looking to the upbuilding of the village. It was said of him, "The young people of H—— base their ethical conceptions upon what Mr. B. thinks is right." When a teacher wins such a place, a most solemn responsibility rests upon him to set a right example, live a right life, and think right thoughts.

2. *Responsibility for the physical well-being of his pupils.* — This question is discussed in the chapter on "Duty of the Teacher" (p. 241). It is sufficient here to remark that for several hours a day the child is committed to the care of the teacher, who must not forget that proper education includes also the physical well-being of his charges. The teacher is responsible for the hygienic conditions of the schoolroom,— the maintenance of good ventilation, correct temperature, right seating, guarding against draughts and exposure, watchfulness as to the condition of the clothing in wet weather, and general oversight of the health. No system of ventilation has been devised that eliminates the personal attention of the teacher. Only when the children are in perfect health can school duties be fully performed, and to secure this, systematic physical

training should be a part of the school course. This training will tend to correct deformities of the body, shambling gait, awkwardness of movement, and to bring all parts of the body under the absolute control of the will, which Rosenkranz defines as the object of physical culture.

3. *Responsibility for the moral training of his pupils.* — In his eagerness to further the intellectual life of the child, the teacher must not neglect his moral development. Teachers are sometimes so bound to their daily routine, to the carrying out of all the program, that they will not take time to ferret out and show the enormity of a lie. There are times when the supreme duty of the teacher is to stop all other work and give a lesson in morals. A pedantic adherence to the daily routine when a gross evil has been committed has a tendency to create in the minds of the children indifference to moral questions. They are the most vital and important element of all school work, and upon this point there should be no doubt left in the minds of the pupils. While the teacher alone is not responsible for the moral training of the children, — the home, the community, the State, the Church, have their respective parts to perform, — it must not be forgotten that with many children the school is the most potent factor in establishing moral habits and moral ideals.[1] The other elements in the child's education may be vicious or ineffective; therefore the school, with its daily, direct, intelligent, and sympathetic contact, must undertake to supply the deficiencies in other agencies, and establish ethical principles and habits in the child. Many a child is saved from a life of degradation through the direct influence of a con-

[1] See "Foundations of Education," p. 172, Chapter on "Who are responsible for the education of the child?"

secrated teacher who appreciates his opportunity in the moral work of the schoolroom.[1]

4. *Responsibility for the intellectual growth of the pupils.* — The teacher is an educational expert, and as such should know better than any one else the kind of mental food that the children need. Hence the course of study, the arrangement of the daily program, the classification, the amount of work given whether in school or at home, should be left to him. Through his professional knowledge, his interest in his work and his power to interest children, his methods of instruction, his comprehensive view of the whole field of education, he is fitted to advise as well as to teach his pupils. He should be able to stimulate them to intellectual activity, and awaken a zeal for knowledge. School exercises must not be merely a perfunctory following of the daily routine of lessons, the calling of the school on time, the passing and teaching of the classes, and the dismissal at the close of the day. They must be full of intellectual vitality, create a hunger for knowledge, and foster an eager longing for the truth. The teacher is the central figure in bringing about such ideal conditions, and if they are not realized he should be held accountable. Examinations, monthly reports, promotions, may be used to inform parents of the progress of their children and the efficiency of the school, but the best and final test is the interest manifested by the pupils in their studies and their school.

5. *General responsibility.* — Besides these phases of specific responsibility on the part of the teacher, he owes general responsibility to the community, to the school

[1] The reader is referred for further treatment of this subject to the chapter on "Morals of the School," p. —138.

board, to his profession, and to himself. Each of these is discussed in the following chapter, to which reference is here made.

Rewards of the Teacher. — With all of these natural and acquired attainments, and with the great responsibilities of the office, it is no light matter to become a school-teacher. When one thinks of the hard work, the self-sacrifice, the consecration, one may seriously ask, "Does it pay?" It certainly does for those who possess the qualifications which I have tried to show to be essential. There are rich and certain rewards which in the end fully compensate for the investment. Let us look at these rewards.

1. *The salary.* — Surely, if ever it is true that "the laborer is worthy of his hire," it is true with the teacher. In general his is the poorest paid of any vocation requiring so thorough a preparation, that is so exacting in its demands, so exhausting of strength, so wearing upon the vitality, so isolating from the ordinary opportunities of accumulating a competence. The teacher's life and duties unfit him for the sharp competition of business, and his exclusion from the ordinary pursuits of men prevents him from knowing how to invest wisely his hard-earned and slowly accumulated savings. The average salary of men teachers throughout the land is less than fifty dollars a month, and that of women less than forty dollars. But his salary is a just reward, and no teacher need consider himself mercenary because he looks forward with pleasure to pay-day. I have shown elsewhere (p. 28) that in making the contract it is one's duty to secure the best possible terms, but when once engaged it is incumbent upon him to teach according to his fullest ability, and not

according to the amount received. The teacher is entitled to the necessities, and at least some of the comforts, of life, and therefore his salary is a just reward.

2. *Improvement of his pupils a reward.* — It is a great joy to see children grow, to witness their development in physical, intellectual, and moral beauty. A girl in a boarding-school had recently undergone an operation which left her right arm practically helpless. She was put under the care of an intelligent teacher of physical culture, and after three months of work I was called to witness the improvement that had been made. She was able to carry her arm entirely over her head, having regained almost natural control of it. I could scarcely keep back the tears of gladness as I said to her, "Della, does your father know of this?" "No," she said, "I have kept this as a surprise for him when I go home for Christmas vacation." "You could not bring him greater happiness than this," said I. Surely this remarkable result could not fail to bring joy to the teacher who had rescued this young life from a sad deformity, — a joy which later years could never efface. Like opportunities come to every observant teacher — the straightening of a deformed body, the securing of glasses for defective eyes, the correction of some weakness — whereby a child may be relieved from a life-burden, and in after-years he may rise up to call his teacher blessed.

Then the joy of witnessing intellectual growth, in joining in the triumph of the child who has mastered a problem or gained a victory! It is keenest delight to the teacher to find that his pupils can do to-day what they could not do yesterday, to see them grow and expand under his magic touch. Still further, through his kindly encouragement and example the quick-tempered lad gains

self-control; the selfish becomes unselfish; the vulgar, refined; the hateful, loving; the lazy, diligent; the violent, gentle; the false, true; the insubordinate, obedient. Thus in the very life of the school the teacher is daily reaping rich rewards for his labor of love. These are the bright spots in the life of the teacher, and they perhaps more than anything else make it impossible for him to give up this work for any other employment, when once he has entered upon it.

3. *Success of his pupils in life a reward.* — "Do you know Mr. E.?" asked a successful business man and leading citizen. "Yes, I know him; but why?" I inquired. "Well, he was my old teacher," said he, "and I owe all I am to him." I took occasion to tell Mr. E. of this conversation not long after, and as tears filled his eyes, he said, "Did he tell you that? Then I have not lived in vain." Alexander the Great loved and revered his old teacher, Aristotle, as much as his own father, and for many years was guided by the precepts which his revered master had taught him. One of the greatest satisfactions that can come to an old teacher is to note the prosperity of his former pupils, some far more successful perhaps than he, and to be conscious that in some measure he has contributed to their success. "These are my boys," he proudly says, and justly may he claim them as his. I once met an old German schoolmaster who had passed his eightieth birthday, and had retired on a pension to spend the remainder of his days among his people, three generations of whom he had taught. Almost every person living in the village had been in his school, and it was delightful to witness the respect and affection with which he was everywhere greeted. "Herr Cantor Grossmann" was

welcome at every gathering, and his advice was still sought by young and old alike. Thus in the ripeness of his declining years he lived among his "children" until he entered upon his greater reward. Rich memories of bygone days, of lives inspired, of encouragement given, of ambitions awakened, which have found fruition in the noble lives of men and women, are surely a great reward to the teacher when the feebleness of old age creeps upon him. Honorable and just is that community that shows its appreciation of such men and women by allowing no anxious thought to disturb the last years of these servants and benefactors.

4. *Reward in consciousness of having done good.* — The noblest reward of all is the sublime consciousness in the teacher's own soul that he has done his duty and that he has been a blessing to his fellow-men. Greater than the external evidences of success in the schoolroom and in life, is this inner consciousness. But little of this world's goods may have been accumulated, there may even be no striking example of greatness among those he has taught, but if duty has been done, no matter if in the humblest of stations, there comes to the faithful teacher satisfaction like that of the woman who poured ointment upon the Saviour's head, and which won for her the highest approbation of the Master in the words, "She hath wrought a good work."

CHAPTER III.

PREPARATIONS BEFORE OPENING SCHOOL.

THERE are certain preliminary matters that should be attended to before the opening day. The wise farmer before he begins harvesting examines his machines, sharpens his tools, puts his barns in order. The builder secures his material, engages his men, gets the necessary implements ready before the time of breaking ground. So the teacher should anticipate the opening of school by making all possible preparations. Let us study these preliminary provisions.

1. **Securing a Position.** — Having secured his license to teach, the young candidate is anxious about securing a position. There are various ways of doing this, as follows:

By correspondence. — If the position sought is some distance away, this may be the practicable method of approach. It is highly important to find out, if possible, the proper person to address. In towns, if the conditions are ideal, the proper person is the superintendent of schools. The modern tendency is more and more to recognize the school superintendent as an educational expert upon whom the duty of nominating teachers rests. Associated with him, there is usually a committee on teachers. If the candidate is obliged to address a letter somewhat at random, it might be sent either to the superintendent or to the chairman of the teachers' committee.

In country districts, the clerk of the board of education is usually the proper person to address. County superintendents are often familiar with vacancies, the trustees being quite likely to call upon them to recommend teachers. The chance of receiving attention is materially increased if one applies to the right person; hence, great pains should be taken to obtain this knowledge.

The letter. — The letter of application is a matter of great importance. First of all, it should be in good English. It is surprising how often applicants for positions lose sight of this, and many hopes are dashed to the ground because of a misspelled word, a false construction, or some other error in the use of the mother-tongue. The carelessness of teachers on this point is woful, and, I do not need to add, inexcusable. A president of a school board once handed me the letters of acceptance of twenty-five teachers who had been invited to take positions in the schools for the next year. Most of them were old teachers who were continued from the previous year. The letters were not selected; they were the replies of the entire force of teachers in the town. There was not a single letter that was free from error in English, though the writers were intelligent and successful teachers. They had simply been careless. While such carelessness did not prove fatal to their chances in this case, the letters being acceptances, it would have been fatal had they been strangers and had the letters been applications. If, in so important a matter as a communication seeking employment, the applicant shows a lack of the habit of using good English, the school board may justly hesitate to put such a person in charge of the training of their children.

In the next place, the letter should be concise. School

boards receive a great many communications from candidates, and they do not like long letters. If they need a teacher, and are attracted by an applicant so much as to open correspondence, a fuller statement of qualifications would be proper. The object of the first letter is to gain attention and awaken interest, and if this succeeds, the board will listen to a longer communication. The first letter should contain (1) a formal application, expressing choice of work with such latitude as would be considered; (2) a statement of qualifications, grade of license, school graduated from, and amount of experience in teaching; (3) references, including copies of recommendations; and (4) a postage stamp for reply. In general, this is all that the first letter should contain, and it should be neatly written, carefully expressed, and to the point.

Personal application. — If possible, a personal visit to the superintendent or board of education is far better than correspondence. Many boards like to see the candidate face to face before engaging him. Both parties can form a far better estimate of the desirability of a contract, and the needs of the school can be discussed. If a teacher is unsuited to a position, it is better that this be discovered before an arrangement is completed, — far better for him as well as for the school.

Teachers' bureaus. — A third method of securing a position is by means of an institution that has become very useful in recent years, namely, the teachers' bureau. These bureaus usually charge a nominal sum as registration fee, and five per cent of the first year's salary when a position is secured through them. They have opportunities of knowing of vacancies, and often serve as a medium between school boards and teachers whereby both are served.

The contract. — After an engagement has been effected, there should be a written contract between the parties. It is the teacher's right and duty to secure as good a salary as possible, but when an agreement has been made no offer of a better position should tempt him to break his contract unless with the consent of the other contracting party. It is better to suffer temporary pecuniary loss than to dishonor the teachers' vocation by failure to keep one's agreement. While, as we have said, it is the teacher's duty to secure the best possible salary, when he enters upon his labors the amount of salary must not influence the quality of his work or his zeal in its performance. He must do his best regardless of salary; he must give his whole life, his whole strength, his best effort. There is good business philosophy in this, as well as moral obligation, for he who seeks to earn his salary merely is overpaid, however small that salary is; and he who proves himself worth more than he is receiving will ultimately secure recognition by advanced salary. This is true of all occupations, and it is one of the most important lessons to be instilled into American life.

2. **Entering the Field.** — When should the teacher be on the ground, and what are the preliminary steps to be taken? In discussing this question, I am thinking particularly of the country teacher upon whom the whole responsibility rests, rather than of one who takes a subordinate position under a principal. The latter will not have the chief responsibility, while the former must attend to all preliminaries himself. The teacher should go to a new district two or three days before school opens. A longer time than this is unnecessary if not inadvisable. A suit-

able boarding-place should be selected, not too near the school, so that there may be the incentive for walking, and so that when school work is over he may get away from its atmosphere. Outside of school, the teacher should lay aside its responsibilities and cares so as to be fresh for the duties of each day, and so as to escape the pedantic character to which we have already alluded (see p.16).

A visit should be paid to the district clerk or official who holds the keys of the schoolhouse, preserves the school register and other materials that are needed, and these secured. The old register should be studied in order to become familiar with the names of children, especially those of peculiar pronunciation. The daily program of the preceding term should be secured, or, if this is impossible, a tentative one prepared for the first few days' use. Then the schoolhouse should be visited to see that it has been properly cleaned, to find if repairs are necessary, to note if the needed materials, books, etc., are at hand, and to study the schoolroom. If the cleaning and repairs have not been attended to, the school board should be notified at once; and if the seating is improper, attention should be called to it, even though it may not be possible to have a change made at once. It will prepare the way for future presentation of the hygienic needs of the school, and assist in securing the changes desired. I once visited a school in charge of an intelligent principal and eight assistants. The pupils of the grammar department sat in a large room for study, while the classes recited in small recitation-rooms. The study-room was about 40 feet by 80 feet, with ceiling not over ten feet high. The windows were all located at one end of the

room and about half-way down one side, thus leaving two and a half sides of the room with no means of admitting light. And yet the seats were arranged so as to face towards the dark end of the room. Thus the two hundred children were seated with their backs towards what little light the low-ceilinged, scantily lighted room possessed! I suggested to the principal that if the seats were faced the other way it would be a great improvement, even though fearfully bad at best. Although it was a bright, sunshiny day, it was so dark in parts of the room that one could scarcely read print. And yet for five years this man had allowed this state of things to exist without even a protest to his school board. "It is of no use," said he, "they will do nothing." I do not believe that a school board can be found in America that would refuse to make a change involving so little expense and of so great importance as this, if the case were earnestly, wisely, persistently laid before them. At least the teacher must do his part and thus absolve himself from the responsibility of evils resulting from such neglect. Thus fortified, and possessed with a fixed purpose of securing right conditions, while conscientiously determined to have no part in subjecting little children to these evils, the teacher will rarely find a school board that will not comply with reasonable requirements. There are plenty of schools where there is a woful lack of proper hygienic arrangements, and generally if they are to be corrected, the teacher must take the initiative. For this reason he should begin at once with discretion and wisdom. His attitude must not be that of a fault-finder, but of one who is preparing to do the community the greatest possible good, and who knows the means whereby that is to be accomplished.

He should examine the school property with the determination to accept full responsibility for its preservation, but not to be held accountable for damage previously done. Maps, text-books, reference books, erasers, and other apparatus should be examined, and where the supply needs replenishing attention called to that fact, so that there may be no delay in instituting full-pressure work when the school opens. A careful study of the schoolroom should be made, so that the best way of manipulating the schoolroom movements may be employed.

Having attended to these matters, I think the teacher may quietly enjoy a Sabbath's rest, and be prepared to enter upon the Monday morning duties with serene confidence and expectation of success. A caution may here be in place. It is not well that the teacher should listen to gossip about this boy or that girl. If Tom Jones has been a bad boy under a previous teacher, it by no means follows that he is going to be a bad boy under the new one. It may be that Tom has resolved to turn over a new leaf. If so, it will not help matters if he finds out that the new teacher has heard all about him, and is, perhaps, already prejudiced against him. The teacher should be able to go before his pupils the first day and say with perfect truthfulness and frankness: "I know absolutely nothing against a single boy or girl here, and do not want to believe that any of you are bad. No matter what the past has been, I want you all to be good from now on." This gives every one a chance to form good resolutions, and the pupils should be encouraged to do so and helped to keep them. Believing a child to be bad, and treating him as if he were bad, will often make him bad. Believing him to be good will often lead him to seek to justify your

faith in him. It is better to make a mistake and think a child good even if he turns out to be bad than to think him to be bad when possibly he is good. This spirit is "twice blest;" it blesses the child who is brought under its influence, and it blesses the teacher whose action is in accord with it. I hardly know which receives the greater blessing! It is the spirit of the Great Teacher in all of His attitudes towards weak and sinful humanity. May every teacher have more of this spirit!

CHAPTER IV.

THE FIRST DAY OF SCHOOL.

EVERY young teacher dreads his introduction to his school, and even the old teacher regards the first day in a new school with considerable anxiety. Very much depends upon the successful meeting of the duties and difficulties of this important occasion. The establishment of correct relations between teacher and pupils from the outset will save both from future trouble and misunderstanding. Discipline will be made easier and more natural, revolt will be anticipated and prevented, the spirit of the work in hand will be appreciated, right impressions will be formed, which will extend not only to the pupils but also to the parents and the community who are eagerly waiting for the verdict concerning the teacher when the children shall come home from school. Many teachers make mistakes during the first day which require weeks of labor to correct, and thus seriously handicap their usefulness in the school.

Gathering at the School. — The teacher should be early at the school the first morning, for the children will be there early. They have had a long vacation, and are eager to get back to school, while the novelty of a new teacher has its attractions. But the teacher should be there before any considerable number have assembled. He should meet them pleasantly without too much formality,

engage them in conversation, and get them to assist in putting things to rights. Naturalness on the part of the teacher at this time is of the highest importance. The children will not be deceived by any assumed characteristics, either of dignity or of over-effusiveness.

Opening School. — At the appointed time call the school to order, and let the children take seats pretty much as they please. Permanent seating is an after-consideration. Open the Bible at once, and read a portion of Scripture without comment, and ask the pupils to join in the Lord's Prayer, when so much religious exercise is allowed. There is nothing that will bring a school into good order so naturally and effectually as these simple religious exercises. For this reason, if for no other, these exercises should never be forbidden. Religious exercises always command respect with children as well as with adults, and there are but few people who will refuse to assume an attitude of reverence while such exercises are in progress. There are also but few people, whatever their creed, that will object to such exercises in the school, provided no sectarian teaching is introduced.

Whether or not there shall be singing on this first day depends upon the ability of the teacher to lead. It is better to have none than to have a fiasco. Singing should be introduced later, when the teacher has found out who among the pupils can sing and what pieces they know, even if the teacher cannot sing. Unfortunately, we have not yet reached Luther's dictum of four hundred years ago, that "it is necessary that every teacher shall be able to sing," a requirement that is met by every teacher in the German schools, and that has made the German people

lovers of music. Singing should be an important part of school exercises, not only in the morning, but also several times during the day. If a speech is to be made, it should be next in order. The speech certainly should not be long. A few words expressing a strong desire to be the friend and helper as well as instructor of the children would not be amiss. But nothing should be said about rules, or conduct, or discipline, or good order; nor should there be any threats, or undue exhibition of authority. This will not be necessary at the outset, for the children on this first morning will be watching the new teacher in order to form a judgment of the material of which he is made. Outbreaks may come later, and the young teacher must be ready for them, but to anticipate them by suggestion will only precipitate them the sooner. Quiet, firm, clean-cut in manner and speech, the teacher will give his pupils the impression that he does not say much, but that he means all he says. He must prove to his pupils that he is there for business, that he knows his business, and that the first business is to get everybody at work. The commencement of the day should be perfectly natural, and the teacher should assume leadership as though he expected perfect comradeship with his pupils without resigning his right to direct. Whatever is said or done should embody a spirit of frankness and sincerity, while it carries with it a tone of firmness and confidence.

Securing Names. — Having the old register in his possession, let the teacher call the roll from that, inquiring after the absentees, and supplementing with the names of the new pupils. The list of names should not be entered into the permanent roll-book for a few days until the chil-

dren who are coming to school have entered. By this plan, only a few minutes will be required to secure the names of all the pupils.

Seating. — We have seen that the pupils have taken seats where they pleased when they came in. The larger pupils will naturally take the rear seats, and the smaller ones those nearer the front. If the seats are graded in size, this is a hygienic arrangement. If the seats are double, it may be well to allow the children to choose their seat-mates; but they should be told at the outset that this arrangement will hold good only so long as good order and good work follow. Their wishes are thus respected, and at the same time warning is given that the purpose of the school must be respected, and that a change will be made if necessity demands it. It puts the responsibility of good behavior upon them. Of course, when defects of hearing or eyesight appear, they must be considered in seating the pupils. It is well, at this point, to call attention to the care of the desks. If there are any defects in the school furniture, careful note of the same should be made, and the children instructed that no destruction of the school property will be tolerated. Let the children know that they will be called to a strict account for pencil- or knife-marks on their desks. I have known teachers to be utterly indifferent to the condition and preservation of school property, thereby doing a great injustice to the community that employs them, and committing a far greater wrong against the pupils, upon whom the lesson of regard for public property should be impressed. It will be a convenience in the movement of classes to have those belonging to the same class sit near one another.

Carrying Out the Daily Schedule. — I have said in the preceding chapter that the teacher must provide himself with a temporary program of daily work. This should now be carried into effect. Let us suppose that first on the program is the A class in arithmetic. Have this class arise and pass to the recitation-benches in such order as has been decided to be the most feasible and to cause the least confusion. In a mixed school, where a large part of the pupils are engaged in study while a class is reciting, the latter should be brought to the front. There is a great deal in close contact between teacher and pupils while instruction is being given. I once witnessed a recitation in which the pupils were ranged on benches at the rear of a large room, the teacher being at the front. Aside from the disturbance to the pupils who were studying in the room caused by the teacher shooting over their heads, as it were, the class itself lost much of the force of the instruction because of the distance. It is much like the law of the intensity of light, which varies inversely with the square of the distance. The personality, the enthusiasm, the efficiency of the teacher, will be greatly increased if the class is brought forward so as to be in close contact with him. The best way of marching classes to and fro should be adopted so as to economize time, — a very important item in a mixed school with its many classes. This movement should be conducted at this time in the same manner that it is proposed to employ in the future. It is well to begin right.

Having the class seated, take their names, distribute books if they are furnished, and assign the first lesson. The lesson assigned cannot be an advance lesson, for there is no time to explain a new lesson. It certainly should not be, "Take the first lesson in the book." Assume

that former work has been well done until weaknesses are discovered. When it is found that the work of the previous teacher has not been thorough, the pupils will be reconciled to go over it again. On the whole, I think it best to assign as review the last lesson of the previous term, explaining to the pupils that there is no time to speak of new work, and that a review of this will prepare them to understand the advance work. In arranging a schedule for the first day, it is better to begin with the older pupils, so as to get them at work. They are more likely to be disorderly when unemployed than the little children.

Call the next class in arithmetic, and proceed in the same manner. So proceed with all the classes in arithmetic until all the classified pupils have been set at work. Time may now be taken to examine and classify in arithmetic the new pupils. Such classification, however, should be tentative, and the pupils must be told that they are being placed on trial. Proceed in the same manner with the classes in geography, reading, language, etc., namely, call to the recitation-benches, take names, give out books, assign lessons, dismiss to their seats, look after new pupils. The taking of the names of pupils several times over in this way will serve to fix them in the teacher's mind, so that before the close of the first day he can easily become familiar with the names of all pupils in a school of fifty children. This, in itself, is a very important beginning. Children particularly dislike to tell their own names repeatedly, and the sooner the teacher knows the names, the sooner he will be master of the situation. No time schedule is followed this first day, but the classes are called in order as fast as the above scheme of work can be carried out. This exercise, besides furnishing opportunity

to learn the names, accomplishes other important ends. It distributes and records text-books that are public property, it sets tasks for the pupils to begin, it starts the machinery of the school in motion, it has a business-like air that commands respect. One other suggestion in regard to securing the names. A simple device is to have the children pin their names upon their clothing in some exposed place until the teacher knows them.

Employment. — It will be apparent that in the preceding plan the importance of employment for children is fully recognized. There is no surer and better means of forestalling mischief, maintaining order, promulgating the right spirit, and fixing the notion that the school is a business enterprise, than by keeping the pupils busy. Establish the idea at the outset that idleness will not be tolerated. Let the lessons for the following day be prepared in regular order.

After going through the program of studies, it will be found profitable to practise schoolroom movements, such as passing to and from recitations, going to the blackboard, marching in and out of the room, as well as about the room. Economy in time will be secured thereby, and the children will enjoy these exercises. Besides this, marching exercises are an excellent means of gaining control of a school, securing respect for authority, and giving the teacher confidence in his power to command.

Should there still be time, begin with the class whose recitation falls at that time of the day, say two o'clock in the afternoon, and give the instruction much as you expect to give it in the future. The pupils have had no time to prepare this lesson, it is true, but it is better to commence the

routine of work so that the regular order will follow the next day. Thus the day will be completed, and the machinery of the school will be found to move along smoothly and in perfect order.

Recapitulation. — During the first day, the following things have been accomplished:

1. The names of all the pupils have been learned, a matter of no small importance.

2. The pupils have all been classified, and their names recorded in the daily register, and in their proper classes.

3. Books have been given out and charged to the pupils.

4. Lessons have been assigned, and the children have begun to prepare them.

5. Some familiarity with the environment has been obtained, and the machinery of the school set in motion.

6. Lastly, a good impression by such a first day has been made upon the pupils — an impression that the teacher knows what he wants and how to get it, that he is enthusiastic and zealous, that he is seeking the best good of his pupils, that he means to serve the community to the best of his ability; — and these impressions will be carried to the many homes represented in the school, and to the parents who have eagerly been waiting for a report of the first day of school.

CHAPTER V.

THE DAILY SCHEDULE OF WORK.

THE tentative program which will answer for the first few days is only a temporary expedient. After a short time, when the teacher shall have become acquainted with the needs of the school and with the work, he will spend many hours in devising a schedule of work that will be harmonious, that will properly correlate the material, that will place each subject where the greatest good can be obtained from it, taking into account the whole field, that will recognize the rights of all classes and grades of children, and that will work smoothly. I believe that a loss of ten, twenty, and perhaps a still greater per cent in the effectiveness of teaching, often occurs from an improperly arranged program. If this loss were sustained by a manufacturer, a merchant, or any other business man in the conduct of his establishment, it would mean ruin. Why should such loss be tolerated in the school when it can be avoided, and the efficiency of the school increased from ten to fifty per cent? A great deal is said about waste in school enterprise; the greatest waste of all comes from an improper arrangement of the daily work.[1]

It has been found by tests that the child is more accurate, more attentive, and remembers better, the first period of the day than at any other time; that his strength in

[1] See chapter on the Daily Program in my "Foundations of Education."

each of these diminishes during the progress of the session, becoming very weak after a long session; that the rest of a recess or change of occupation recuperates the powers and reinstates the mental vigor in a measure; and that while some subjects gain by having the preference as to time of day given to them, others lose little by being placed at a less favorable time. Thus, if arithmetic, which requires keen mental alertness, is placed early in the morning, the best result for that subject is obtained; while if it be placed at the end of a long session, it loses fearfully. On the other hand, if reading, which does not require such intense application as arithmetic, is placed first in the day, it also will show excellent results; if placed at the end of the session, it, too, will lose, but not by far to such an extent as arithmetic. Now, the question of relative values does not enter here. It is not whether arithmetic or reading is of greater educational value, but what arrangement of studies will do the most for the child. If both are equally benefited by receiving preference as to time, and the one loses fearfully by being placed at the last period, while the other loses little, the arrangement should be such as would cause the least loss and reach the best results all around.

In general, then, the rule should be to place the hardest subject first in the morning, less difficult ones following, until those requiring the least application will fall at the end of the session. If there is a long noon recess, say of an hour and a half, or two hours, it will be seen that the pupils have recuperated so as to be able to take up more difficult work again; but it will probably be found that the depletion of strength is more rapid than in the forenoon. Hence the afternoon session should be shorter

than the morning session, and, on the whole, the lessons should be easier.

To be explicit, it would seem best to place arithmetic the first thing in the morning (reading for beginners, because it is their hardest subject), followed by language work, science, reading, drawing, penmanship, and busy-work for the little children; in the afternoon, history, geography, manual training, etc. This would be the general plan of arranging the studies whether in a graded or an ungraded school, whether in the city or in the country. Of course, the details would vary according to circumstances. Little children must have reading and number work each session of the day. But these are the general principles upon which every teacher should arrange his permanent program; and if he does this, there will be economy of time, saving of waste, without extra labor or exertion. It must not be forgotten that the teacher is subject to the same laws of physical endurance as the children, and that he, too, is fresh and strong at the beginning of the day and weary at its close. If tests were made upon the teacher, it would doubtless be found that an adjustment of the work along the lines indicated would conserve his strength, and greatly add to the force and efficiency of his teaching.

Daily Lessons. — With young children it is better to have daily recitations in each subject, even though the period be short; and with first- and second-year pupils it is advisable to have more than one recitation a day in reading and number work.

A friend of mine arranged for an hour's lesson and conversation in German once a week for her six-year-old boy. The teacher was accomplished, and the boy bright and

intelligent ; but after seven years I examined the boy and found that he had accomplished surprisingly little. Fifteen minutes or even ten minutes each day in the week would have secured far greater results. Maturer pupils may have lessons alternate days with profit, and this will be necessary in the country school, where there are usually a few large boys and girls who want to do some advanced work ; but the small children should recite every day. It is better to concentrate the work upon a few subjects until they are completed than to carry many subjects by having them only on alternate days.

The Recess. — There is a movement in many places looking to the abandonment of the recess. It is urged that most of the immoral practices of the school crop out during recess, that it causes confusion, that it wastes time, and that it provokes disorder.

As to the immoral tendencies of the recess, it furnishes the opportunity for quarrels, for the use of vulgar or profane language, and for other evils incident upon a number of children playing together. But these things need not be if the teacher exercises a proper supervision of the children during their recreation. Not that the teacher should wholly control or perhaps even direct the activities of the playground. It was always painful for me to witness the solemn procession of German children under the censorship of their teacher as they slowly marched around the school-ground at the recess, as is their usual custom. Even in the rare cases when they were allowed to play, it was under the leadership of the teacher, and was wholly perfunctory. But the teacher should mingle with the children, joining in their games at times as one of their num-

ber, and always know what is going on among them. There should be all the freedom and relaxation that the circumstances will permit. In many of our large cities the cost of building-sites is so great that suitable playgrounds cannot be provided. Even in this case the recess should not be omitted, but the children should be frequently taken out of their rooms, and an opportunity for all the relaxation possible should be given to them.

Instead of the recess fostering immorality, it may be made of the highest moral utility. Children can be taught respect for the rights of others, unselfishness, generosity, and kindred virtues on the playground, and there is no exercise in the schoolroom or subject of the curriculum that affords such excellent chance to teach these virtues. As men and women they will associate and must respect each other's rights. The recess affords a means of teaching them to do this. Besides, it must not be forgotten that children do mingle freely before and after school, and all the opportunities for evil that the recess offers will be offered upon plenty of occasions where there is no oversight or restraint. If there are immoral practices at recess, it is probable that the trouble lies deeper than the surface, and that the school is lacking in moral tone.

Some confusion also is caused by the recess. But it is confusion that breaks up the monotony, that reinvigorates and puts new life into the children. There is no reason why pupils should not pass out of and into the schoolroom in perfect order, and it is a splendid training to teach them to do so. And when they are again seated they will soon settle down to their work with new oxygen in the blood, and new strength for the remaining hours of school. The recess is no waste of time. Indeed, it is a gain in time,

for with the ability to do better work they will more than make up the time of the recess. I feel sure that pupils will accomplish more with fifty minutes' work and ten minutes' rest than they would accomplish in the full sixty minutes of work without any rest; and this principle will hold good for the whole school-day. That is why the German schools have a recess of from five to fifteen minutes every hour. It will be found also that the relaxation of the recess is invaluable for the teacher, provided he will accept it as such, and not continue to keep busy with some kind of tasks.

The One-session Plan. — Many communities, especially cities, have but one session a day, extending over four or five hours continuously, with one or two short intermissions. If it is true that the child's powers grow weaker with each hour's work, — and there is no reasonable doubt of it, — the last hours of a long session must be of greatly diminished value to the child, if not distinctly harmful. Such a practice may be followed in high schools where the children have attained sufficient mental and physical vigor to stand the long-sustained exertion, but surely it should not be inflicted upon little children, who need frequent and extended periods of rest. It is of questionable wisdom even in the high school, as it has been noticed that children just up from the grammar school, where they are accustomed to two sessions a day, find the strain very severe. The one-session plan, it is true, gives both teacher and pupils a long afternoon for work as well as recreation, but it may be better that school-work should be done under the supervision of teachers; that not too much home-work should be required or allowed. Even if the subjects are so arranged as to

relieve the pupil by alternating difficult with easy subjects, — and great relief may be effected by this, — the best results will be attained when there is an intermission at midday of at least an hour and a half, with short recesses during each session. All German schools follow the two-session plan, with a noon interval of at least two hours.

Number of Recitations During the Day. — Most mixed schools have too many recitations. One teacher told me that she had "eighty-five pupils and eighty-six classes." Another, who spoke seriously, told me that she had forty-two daily recitations in her school of fifty pupils. It is needless to say that the best work cannot be done with so many classes. Twenty recitations a day should be the maximum, and this should be reduced if possible. In graded schools, where the teacher has only one or two grades under his charge, the number can be brought down to ten or twelve. Let the teacher sit down, pencil in hand, and reckon up how many classes in arithmetic, geography, reading, language, etc., are necessary, and if the number foots up too great, combine and eliminate until the minimum is reached. If there are twenty recitations, it will give an average of about fifteen minutes to each. Some classes will need more than this, as those in advanced arithmetic, history, etc., while others will not need so much. This time, fifteen minutes, will serve as a measure in distributing the time among the classes. The size of the classes will also be a factor to be reckoned with, as a large class is entitled to more time than a small one. The portion of time allotted to beginners in reading and number can be divided, a part being given to the morning and a part to the afternoon, as little children must have short and frequent reci-

tations. The wise and just allotment of time to the various classes is a very important matter. It may require several days of experimenting before a program that works smoothly is completed. No scheme is here given because it is a problem that must be worked out by each teacher for his own school. Certain principles have been laid down as guides, which are recapitulated at the end of this chapter. Let the teacher follow these, and a program of daily work can be constructed that will utilize every moment of time to the best advantage.

Seat-work. — The seat-work should be as definitely specified in the schedule as the recitation. A time for everything, and everything at its proper time, is a good motto for both teacher and pupils. There must be no wasting of valuable time in the seats any more than in the recitation. The children must know the specific work they are expected to do, and must be required to do that before they may do anything else. This will be found to aid materially in maintaining good order. Children are always active, and they soon learn to direct that activity in a proper channel, and that is good order. In addition to the regular work assigned, there should be special work outlined that the pupils may do when their regular tasks are completed. This will furnish employment for those that learn easily, or have done their work already. This work may consist of topics indicated on the blackboard, use of books of reference, events of history, biography, extra problems, drawing, etc. The main thing is that the pupils early learn to keep busy. Recapitulation assists the student to retain. I believe in it most thoroughly as a pedagogical practice. Hence, this should be retained.

Recapitulation. — The object of this chapter is to call attention to the importance of a proper arrangement of the daily schedule, and to aid the teacher in making such an arrangement. If no other result is reached than to lead the teacher to watch his work, rearrange, experiment, put lessons that are not properly placed at some other time, until the best results are obtained for the work as a whole, this chapter will not have been written in vain. I am convinced that many of the disappointments in the teacher's work are caused by an improper arrangement of the studies, and that changes could often be made to strengthen the weak places without loss to the others. If a gain of ten per cent in the general efficiency of the school can be effected by a careful adjustment of the subjects of the daily schedule, it is well worth while. I am convinced that fully that amount can be saved.

To recapitulate the various matters considered:

1. Do not allow more than twenty daily recitations.

2. Take fifteen minutes as the average time for each recitation, allowing more time to the advanced classes, and less to the beginners.

3. Place the hardest subjects first in the morning, less difficult ones next, and easy subjects at the close of the session. Follow the same general plan in the afternoon, though the afternoon subjects should not, on the whole, be so difficult as those of the forenoon.

4. Alternate the hard and easy subjects, bearing in mind, however, the general principles stated in No. 3.

5. Indicate seat-work as well as recitations.

6. Have frequent recesses, which should be periods of total relaxation.

7. Recitations should be daily, and with very young children twice a day.

8. The work should be so adjusted as to give each class its fair share of the teacher's time.

9. The teacher should guard against hobbies, which lead to too much time being given to such subjects as he likes, and to the neglect of other subjects.

10. Take into account the whole work and all the subjects to be taught in arranging the daily schedule.

CHAPTER VI.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE SCHOOL.

The City School. — The city school, with its large number of pupils and ample corps of teachers, can be graded according to ideal plans. The work below the high school is usually divided into eight grades, each grade standing for a year's work. As these schools are quite uniformly graded, and as my purpose is to assist in the work of construction, I shall pass this topic by, reserving further hints for the chapter on Promotion.

The Country School. — Many seem to think that the rural school cannot be graded, and thus the work is allowed to drift along year after year, each teacher following pretty nearly the same plan that his predecessor did, or, too often, not following any plan at all. This condition of things doubtless grows out of the frequent changes in teachers in the country schools, but it is not a sufficient excuse. No teacher should plan his work as if his stay was to be short; and even if he knows that it will be short, the work should be planned as it should be carried out whether by him or by some one else. Every new teacher should find out what his predecessor has attempted, and seek to carry farther every good work that has been begun. This does not mean that one teacher will attempt to imitate another. Each teacher must imbibe the spirit and absorb the ideas of every good teacher with whom he comes in contact, but

he must work them out in his own way. As educational theory becomes more settled, its practice will also become more uniform. In no place is there such need of broad educational theory, and consequently of trained teachers, as in the country. The fact that teachers there change more frequently makes uniformity more difficult. The problem of the country school and its proper grading is calling for the best thought of educators throughout the land. Of course, no such close grading as that of the town schools is practicable. But a suitable scheme of grading is possible, and that it would be of great benefit to the rural schools has been shown by wise thinkers in recent years. The reaction from the movement towards the city, which shows itself in so many business men utilizing modern means of transportation and establishing their homes in the country, while they continue business in the city, would be encouraged if the rural school were made attractive and efficient for their children.

Grading in German Country Schools. — We might well learn the lesson that Prussia teaches in this respect. For more than a century her rural schools of all descriptions have been divided into three grades (Stufen), as follows: The lowest grade, children from six to eight; the middle grade, those from eight to eleven; and the highest grade, those from eleven to fourteen. This grading is one of the important factors in securing the remarkable efficiency of these schools. It is true that the teachers are all normal graduates, that they are under careful inspection, that changes are very infrequent, and therefore the work is systematized and brought to a professional basis. Doubtless the grading of all the schools has had a tendency to

create a want for these most desirable conditions, and made efficient teachers a necessity to the success of the system. If the grading of our rural schools could have that effect, it would cure two of the greatest evils of our school system, namely, inefficient teachers and lack of permanency in positions. It has had that effect in a large measure in our city schools, so that the weakest place in our educational scheme is the rural school.

Advantages of the Mixed School. — It may be profitable to study the advantages of the mixed school as well as those of the graded school. The mixed school is not without certain benefits. Some of the greatest men of our land received their early education, and indeed in many cases all of their training, in the old-fashioned country school. No one can tell what the result might have been had they been trained in the graded school with its many helps and its superior facilities. Perhaps it would have "ironed all the originality out of them." Perhaps they would have been far greater than they became. It is useless to speculate upon the probabilities. But what are the advantages of the mixed school?

1. *The child learns to be self-reliant.*—He works largely as an individual, and receives but little help from the teacher. The criticism so often heard in these days, that the teacher does too much for the pupil, a complaint that is probably well founded, could not be made of the old-time school. The child was set at his task, and left to do it largely as he pleased, in his own way and in his own time, and the teacher examined the work to see if it was done — in other words, "heard the lesson." This caused great waste of effort on the child's part, often brought discourage-

ment, and sometimes led to his abandonment of the task and the school. But it had a tendency to cultivate the self-reliance which makes strong men, and admirably prepared them to cope with life's hard duties with confidence and success.

2. *It encourages individual work.* — The child could work at his own pace without being held back by slower pupils or over-hastened by those capable of greater speed than he. He escaped what is now considered the great defect of a closely graded system, the so-called "lock-step," which holds him to the pace that the rest of the class can maintain. On the other hand, he lost some of the stimulus of rivalry with others of his class, those that were his equals or his betters. Of this I shall speak in another place, in treating the advantages of a graded school.

3. *It furnishes an opportunity for children to learn from the recitations of the higher classes.* — The United States Commissioner of Education shows that in 1899 the "average number of years of schooling (of 200 days each) that each individual of the population received, . . . taking into account all public and private schools of whatever grade," was 4.96. Thus, on an average the child attends school less than five years, and therefore many of the subjects of the higher grades will never be reached by him. Children in the mixed school pick up a great deal of information by listening to the work of older pupils in recitation, that they would never reach because of their early withdrawal from school. It may be urged that this will lead them to neglect their own work, that it will be confusing, and cause dissipation of thought and energy. Experience has shown that this is not the case, and that children soon become accustomed to the situation and are not disturbed thereby.

4. *There are not so many outside distractions for the country child.* — The charge has been made against the public school, that its severe requirements, its high pressure, its demands upon the vital energy of the child, are giving our pupils nervous prostration. Surely, no one ever hears this in connection with pupils in the country school! And if the truth were known, it would be found that the cases of nervousness among town children are traceable to outside distractions,— the theatre, parties, entertainments, late hours,— and not often to their school-work. The school is the central interest in the country district, and the child is free from the abnormal, unhealthful, and unnatural stimuli that constantly invite the attention of the city child.

5. *The country school affords opportunity to study nature at first hand.* — If the teacher knows how to utilize this fact, most healthful and valuable lessons can be imparted to child life. The trouble is, too often, that we go to books to study geography, plant, and animal life, and the various fields of natural science, when the most beautiful and practical lessons are undiscovered at the very door of the schoolhouse. Froebel appreciated this while walking through the Thuringian Forest, when the name "Kindergarten" came to him like an inspiration as "a good name for his youngest-born."

6. *It trains to responsibility.* — It must be admitted that the duties of the farm and country life afford greatest opportunities in training the child to assume and discharge responsibilities. The care of fowls, of livestock, the doing of home chores, the work of the household, the assisting in the manifold duties of farm-life, are educative influences in the highest sense. It is a splendid thing for a boy or girl to be brought up with this environment, even

though life has many hardships and much toil. Many of the great men of our country have grown up under these very influences. I think the country school also may claim its share, in conjunction with country life, in fostering these responsibilities which so well prepare for life, and which materially increase the country boy's chances of success when he goes out into the world.

Advantages of the Graded School. — We think of the graded school in this connection as the school that is large enough to maintain a number of teachers and has at least eight grades. Its advantages may be stated as follows :

1. *It has a good organization.* — With a number of teachers there can be a better division of labor, a closer grading of the pupils to meet individual advancement, a more carefully worked out course of study, and a systematic adherence to a plan of work. While there is danger that too much organization may make the school-work perfunctory and mechanical,— a danger that has led educators to devise means of promoting outside of the regular routine, and to adopt means of helping the individual pupil, — still it must be claimed that the graded school has proved economical both as to cost of maintenance and as to effort involved, and has been, on the whole, most salutary in its results. It is one of the indications of progress in educational enterprise, and its lessons should be utilized in a great measure by the mixed school, which lacks in organization.

2. *It can afford better teachers.* — Because it pays better salaries, offers more congenial work, has better environment, does not change its corps so often, the city school secures better teachers. This is inevitable and is

not to be deprecated. There is no reason why the teacher should not better his condition by seeking a position that pays a higher salary and offers opportunity for professional advancement. Association with other teachers not only, but the many attractions of the town, are inducements that allure enterprising and well-qualified teachers, inducements that the country school cannot offer. Consequently the best teachers naturally gravitate towards the town graded schools.

3. *Its pupils remain longer in school.* — With its full eight years' course and eight grades, and, in most towns, its high school beyond these, the child is more apt to remain longer in school. It gets into an educational atmosphere that is wanting in the country school. He hears about the high school and the college, and is more likely to lay his plans to attend one if not both of these. The establishment of a high school in a community always has the effect of inducing children to remain a longer time in a grammar school. In a word, it is an example of building from the top downwards. The college elevates the high school, and the high school leads the elementary school to higher ideals. The child with heights before him, is more likely to be ambitious to climb than if there are no heights that beckon him upward, nothing more lofty towards which he can aspire. Thus he is kept longer at school, and greater opportunity is afforded the teacher to mould him according to the ideals of manhood that he has conceived.

4. *It arouses greater ambitions.* — Contact with others of about the same ability arouses the child's ambition. In a healthy graded school there is a constant stimulus to work, awakened by seeing classmates work. In the country school, where there are few or no ambitious class-

mates, this stimulus is lacking. Healthful emulation serves to bring out the powers to their fulness. That is one reason why a child would be taught better in classes with other children rather than by a private tutor, even though the tutor be superior and though he devote all his time to his pupil. Children are inspired to greater exertion, whether in school or on the playground, by seeing other children try. Hence the graded school is to be commended as a means of securing better and more continuous work.

5. *It secures more regular attendance.* — Better roads, shorter distances, fewer home duties to perform, make it easier to secure regular attendance in the town than in the country. There are so many ways in the country in which the children can be useful that parents far too often are inclined to keep them out of school. The boy can save the wages of an extra man, and the girl can perform many household duties, care for younger children, etc. Attendance in the country school is therefore often irregular. Parents should not forget that their highest duty to their offspring, a God-given duty, which no circumstance save illness can excuse, is to furnish them an opportunity to obtain an education, and allow nothing to interfere therewith. It is the inherent right of every child to be educated, and the needs of the family, the selfishness of parents, even poverty, can offer no excuse for preventing or withholding that right. Not only the future of the child, but also that of the nation, depends upon jealously guarding that inestimable right. In this respect the city school more nearly realizes the ideal in regularity of attendance than the country school.

6. *It is furnished with better material means.* — The

schoolhouses are generally better, the apparatus ampler, and the text-books more modern and plentiful. With more means at command, the city school board is able to supply the essential needs of the school with greater liberality, and the enterprise and intelligence of a live town assure a greater outlay of money for education than is possible in the country district, where there is lack of means as well as absence of a spirit of healthful rivalry.

Thus, while there are obvious advantages in the mixed country school, those of the graded city school are far superior, and efforts are being made to secure for the country children many of these advantages. Two methods to accomplish this end have been suggested, and are being carried out in many sections. These are the centralization of the school interests by transporting the children at public expense, and the grading of the schools, or both.

The Transportation of Pupils. — The exodus of population from many country districts has reduced the number of school children so low that it is difficult to maintain a school. There is a minimum as well as a maximum limit, beyond which it is not profitable to maintain a school. From forty to fifty pupils should be the maximum number assigned to a teacher, and the minimum should not be less than twenty or twenty-five. Below this number the *per capita* cost to the district becomes too great, while the smallness of the classes makes it difficult to keep up the interest. A growing recognition of these facts has led to the adoption of plans of centralizing scattered children and combining several schools in one. This is done by abandoning small schools and transporting the children at public expense to some central school, which can be graded.

Thus the children from remote districts are afforded many of the advantages of the graded school already set forth, while still living upon the farm and retaining the advantages of country life. Experiments have proved that this can be done without increasing the total cost of education. This seems to afford a solution of the question as to the better education of children in isolated districts. Increased attendance, regularity, punctuality, longer school year, better teachers, and better instruction, and more inspiring educational environments, are secured by this plan. There is no reason why the centralization of schools by this means should not increase in favor and thereby strengthen our educational work in its weakest place. The chief obstacle that stands in the way is the sentiment for "the little red schoolhouse," where parents and grandparents got their education. This doubtless will gradually give way to the necessities of the case, and to the overwhelming argument of better educational facilities furnished.

How to Grade. — The great majority of our country schools are without any system of grading. I have pointed out the advantages of graded schools, and while all of these may not be reached by the country school, with its small numbers and meagre facilities, is it not worth while to adopt some plan of grading? Shall the new teacher drift along in the same track in which his predecessors had moved, with no effort to bring order out of the chaos of work, or shall he begin at once intelligently to grade his school? Too often the short tenure of office in a school discourages the teacher from beginning a new enterprise, and leads him to let things go as they have been going. Two things are necessary to obviate this evil: (1) greater permanency in

positions, and (2) a uniform scheme of grading for country schools required by law, enforced by the school authorities, and supported by public opinion. So long as teachers frequently change, and so long as there is no agreement as to uniform grading, no progress will be made. I therefore make bold to offer a scheme of grading for country schools which, while it by no means attempts to say the final word, may furnish a basis upon which to build, and which may lead to the ideal plan. The new teacher should grade his school at the earliest moment after he has familiarized himself with the situation. Of course, the mixed school cannot be graded with the regular eight grades of the city system. It would require too many recitations, and many of the classes would be too small for effective work. With but one teacher in the school the number of grades should not be more than three. I shall therefore present a scheme of grading based on that plan.

A Three-grade Scheme. — I have shown (p. 52) that for a century the Germans have graded their country schools by the three-grade plan, and this is the general idea of the Committee of Twelve of the National Educational Association in its report. How shall the teacher who enters a school that has never been graded proceed to grade it so that the benefits of systematized work may be secured without creating too many classes and necessitating too many daily recitations, and without establishing too much school machinery? Let him select two subjects, such as arithmetic and reading as a basis, — for these subjects embrace all the pupils, —and classify those up to eight years of age in the C grade, from eight to eleven in the B grade, and above eleven in the A grade. Of course,

qualifications in the two subjects will take precedence of the age limit, but the latter will serve as a guide. No fixed or absolute rule can be established as to the grade in which a child shall be put, and the first assignment will necessarily be tentative, subject to such change as the demonstrated ability of each pupil may later indicate. Thus, if a pupil is in advance of or below pupils of his age in these subjects, he will be placed in the grade correspondingly higher or lower as his case requires. If this does not furnish division of the work in given subjects to meet the needs of the pupils, let there be two divisions of the grade in those subjects; as, for example, in reading there will necessarily be more than three classes. It will often be found that two divisions can be ultimately merged into one, and in any case they can be worked together. The scheme may be illustrated as follows:

A THREE-GRADE SCHEME.

A	Arithmetic 1 Arithmetic 2	Reading	Geography	History
B	Arithmetic	Reading	Geography 1 Geography 2	History
C	Arithmetic	Reading 1 Reading 2		

CONTINUED.

A	Language	Science	Writing	Drawing
B	Language	Nature Work	Writing	Drawing
C		Nature Work	Writing	Drawing

This is merely an illustration, the teacher making two divisions in such subjects as will best classify the school.

In some of these subjects, as writing and drawing, all three grades can be worked together. It is also possible that both divisions of a grade in other subjects can recite together, thus enabling subdivisions in other subjects without having too great a number of recitation periods or too short periods. This will not prevent a child whose general classification is, say, B, from taking work in another grade if he will get greater good from it. I repeat, too rigid classification should not be insisted upon, and the children should be made to understand that the first classification is only a trial, and that corrections will follow as soon as it is demonstrated that an error has been made.

Grading of a country school along these lines would have the following effect:

1. The children will have definite aims before them, and they will be able to measure their progress by a well-understood standard.

2. There will always be before them the incentive to work forward into the next class; for instance, from B^2 to B^1, from B^1 to A^2, etc. In such a school, while there should be regular times of promotion, a child should be advanced at any time of the year that he is prepared to go higher.

3. It will be possible to outline a course of study. County superintendents who provide a course of study for the country schools can easily prepare their examination questions with reference to such grading.

4. Parents also will have an intelligible standard by which to judge the progress of their children.

5. It will introduce system where there is chaos, order where there is confusion.

6. If there are frequent changes of teachers, the school

will not suffer so much, because there is a general plan of work to which all teachers can readily conform. If a teacher, upon withdrawing from a school, leaves the details of grading that has been in use, his successor can take up the work without serious loss to the pupils.

It only remains for the school authorities of a State to adopt such a plan of grading in order that there may be uniformity among the country schools as there is among the city schools with their eight grades. Such a simple scheme of grading our country schools is entirely feasible, and its introduction would work incalculable good to them.

CHAPTER VII.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

PROBABLY no duty in connection with school-teaching causes so much anxiety to the young teacher as that of maintaining order. If it is a graded school, under a principal who possesses the authority and whose advice can be solicited, the difficulty is not so great for those in subordinate positions. Even here it is well known that the first thing noticed by a principal upon entering the room of a new teacher is the order maintained. There can be no successful school-work unless there is proper regulation. If a teacher is unable to maintain order without too frequent recourse to the principal, the teacher's tenure of office will necessarily be short. A reasonable amount of power in discipline is a positive requisite of every teacher, whether as principal, assistant, or sole teacher in a country school. One must know how to deal with refractory pupils, must be full of resources in the management of children, must be self-reliant and of positive character, in order to become a successful teacher in the common school. Owing to the importance of this question, I propose to enter into a somewhat full discussion of it. The chief end in view will be to instruct and aid the teacher who has sole charge of a school in the solution of this difficult problem. Teachers of the graded school, also, may perchance find valuable suggestions in this discussion.

Discipline a Means to an End. — It is not to be inferred that discipline is to have the first place in the thought of the school, though it may be the first thing to which attention is called upon entering a schoolroom. Indeed, the best discipline is that which remains in the background, that calls for but little attention, that takes care of itself. There are teachers who constantly talk about good order, and who seem to think that the whole purpose of the school is to keep the children out of mischief. Such teachers are apt to have the worst kind of order; not the most noise, it is true, but the repression, the austerity that chills; the constant surveillance that awakens fear, but challenges to mischief; the spirit that fosters slyness while it rules by intimidation. The reason for order in the school is that it is a means to an end, that end being study and legitimate school-work. Many things that are by no means evil, and that may be freely done out of school, may not be done here, because they would interfere with the work. Absolute stillness is not essential to good order. The county superintendent who approached a country school on horseback, and, in order to test how well his ideal of discipline was being maintained, previous to his visit circled about the school, swinging his hat and shouting like a cowboy, and then scolded the teacher because she allowed the children to look out of the windows at his crazy antics, had false notions of the necessary quiet of a school. There are times when a hearty laugh should be indulged in, and this certainly was such a time.

The ends to be sought in school discipline are two, namely, (1) *the protection of the rights of every individual child*, and (2) *the maintenance of the good name of the school as a whole.* Every child has a right to study his

lessons without disturbance, and he also has the right to protection from annoyances from others whether on the playground or in the schoolroom. Perfect freedom and equality upon the playground must be guaranteed to every pupil, and the undisturbed possession of his seat and the right to study without interference must be assured to him. The school that does not guarantee every child that equality and that right cannot be said to have good order.

In the second place, not only must the rights of the child be preserved, but the discipline of the school as a whole must be such as not to impair its good name or awaken public criticism. Thus, too much whispering, too loud study, or unnecessary noise in the schoolroom, or unseemly boisterousness out of doors, or trespassing upon the neighbors about the school or on the way home, may bring the school into disrepute.

All forms of disorder may be classed under these two heads, — protection of the individual, and preservation of the good name of the school. The teacher can appeal to the pupils for a violation of either, as the case may be. Thus, "You are preventing William from learning his lesson," would illustrate the first, and, "Children, there is too much noise for a well-ordered school," would be an example of the second. The ends of discipline will be clearly set forth, appeals can be made to children in matters that they can easily understand, and, at the same time, the discipline of the school will not be made too prominent.

Obedience. — The most essential requisite of good order is implicit obedience. The teacher, by virtue of his office, has a right to expect and exact it. The license to teach

and the appointment to a school clothes the teacher with all necessary authority, and the law sustains him in demanding obedience. It is the duty of the children to obey promptly, and the teacher who requires this obedience with firmness will have but little trouble in securing good order. Nothing less than complete and cheerful compliance with his requirements should satisfy the teacher, though it may not always be possible to secure it immediately. To illustrate this point, let us suppose that a child is told to close a door; he does it angrily, with a slam; he has not obeyed, though he has performed the act required. Let him be told to close it quietly; he again complies, but rudely stamps his feet on his way to the door. Once more he has not been really obedient, and cannot be until he shall have properly carried out the teacher's command. The external requirement has been met, and possibly that is all that the teacher should insist upon at that time, but in spirit — the pupil is still disobedient, and with this, the teacher must not be finally satisfied. In the story of Laura Bridgman, the blind mute who attracted so much attention during the latter part of the last century, we have a case in point. Laura had left some object on her desk contrary to the wish of her teacher. Upon being told to put it away, she raised the desk, put the article in, and then brought the lid down with a terrific bang so as to startle all in the room who possessed the sense of hearing. Her teacher told her to take the object out and put it away quietly; she again complied, but gave an unearthly scream. Now the child had performed the mechanical acts required, but she was even more rebellious and disobedient than at first. Her teacher wisely refrained from pursuing the matter farther at that time, knowing that the child was excited and angry.

But she made Laura understand that the incident was by no means closed. By withholding every demonstration of affection and confidence for two or three days, the teacher made her sensible of her disobedience, and finally caused Laura to come to her and beg forgiveness. Then, and then only, had genuine obedience been rendered. Too often the teacher is satisfied with mere mechanical obedience, which, while it must be insisted upon at once, must be followed by genuine submission, and this must be reached even though many days may intervene before it is brought about. A quiet manner, firmness, persistence, patience, absence of anger, are essential in securing this kind of obedience. Difficulty will often be avoided if the teacher puts the command in the form of a polite request which does not awaken resistance or arouse anger. There need be no lack of firmness in this method of approach. The teacher will teach courtesy by being courteous, and the conveying of commands in this way will furnish frequent and excellent opportunities to cultivate this virtue.

Nagging. — There must be no nagging by the teacher if the desired result is to be attained. Constant harping upon a child's weaknesses or misdemeanors will not cure him. It only aggravates the evil, makes him stubborn and rebellious, and creates the feeling that his teacher is prejudiced against him. I have known teachers to make school and its duties intolerable by their persistent and merciless nagging of pupils who indeed may have done wrong. Such action is worthy of contempt, and no teacher with the true spirit will practise it. The insubordinate and disobedient child should be met alone, the evil of his conduct pointed out to him, and effort made to lead him to the complete submission which

is the sign of real obedience. Face-to-face talks between teacher and pupil when the fires of anger have died out, when the teacher can show the genuine interest felt for the erring child, and where the child is unsupported by the sympathy of his comrades, cannot fail to remove difficulties and do good.

School Discipline Aims at Good Habits. — The great purpose of the school is to form right habits in the pupils. They should be taught to do from habit what is required of them — to be quiet and obedient, to respect the rights of others, to be diligent, thorough in school-work, amenable to the school regulations, to be and to do good. This thought should be constantly in the mind of the teacher. Habit is acquired by frequent repetition of the same act under the same conditions. Evil habits are to be supplanted by good ones. If the teacher must call attention to every movement of the child, acting as an ever-present monitor to him, he relieves him of all responsibility and takes the government upon his own shoulders. In a general way, the teacher is responsible for the government of the school; but if right habits are formed in the children, they will become largely self-governing. They will do right because it is their habit to do so, and not because the eye of the teacher is upon them. The school prepares for life, and if it fails to establish the children in habits of right acting and right thinking, it fails in its most important duty towards them.

Rules and How to Make Them. — While the teacher is not to begin with a list of rules the first day, as shown elsewhere, it will be necessary to have some regulations wher-

ever a number of people are brought together. Some rules are implied, while others must be formulated. Punctual and regular attendance, promptness in responding to signals, gentlemanly behavior, and respect for the rights of others, are implied regulations. Although attention must frequently be called to these in order that pupils may not forget their obligation to keep them, they are regulations that every one understands, even if they are not formally stated. But formal rules also will be necessary because of the immaturity, inexperience, and lack of judgment of children, as well as because some are vicious. It is to the making of these regulations that I desire to call special attention.

1. *Do not anticipate an evil.* — Many evils would never occur if they had not been suggested by a rule. A mother, upon going out to spend an evening, called her children about her and said: "Now, children, I am going out, and you will be left alone. I want you to have a good time, but don't get into mischief. Be sure and not get beans up your noses." Needless to say, upon her return she found all of the children trying to remove beans from their noses. It is not at all likely that this form of mischief would have been thought of had not the mother suggested it. It often occurs, both in the school and in the home, that over-anxiety on the part of teacher or parent to prevent an evil suggests it to the children. It is time enough to meet an evil when it shows itself.

2. *Give warning before making a rule.* — If a wrong exists, call attention to it, and lead the pupils to correct the evil themselves if possible. Show them the wrong, that it interferes with the good order of the school, and that it must cease. If the pupils themselves correct the evil,

the end has been accomplished. If they fail to do so, and a rule becomes necessary, their attitude towards the rule is not likely to be hostile. Their sense of justice is thus appealed to, and if they are subjected to a restriction, the most of the children will realize the fairness of the teacher's procedure and will acquiesce. It should not be forgotten that the large part of the school is disposed to do right, and the method just detailed will secure the co-operation of most of the children. Resistance, if any, will come only from a small minority. The enforcement of a rule that appeals to the sense of fairness of the pupils, and that has been proved a necessity, is comparatively easy. Children love to retain the good opinion of their comrades, and the few rebellious ones will be mightily influenced by the public sentiment of the school. Thus the school itself as a whole is enlisted in the cause of good order.

On the other hand, a teacher will find it a serious undertaking to enforce an unpopular, and, as children are very likely to think, unnecessary rule, and he will shrink from attempting it a second time. The plan of making a rule is as follows: first, point out the evil that exists; second, give the pupils warning that punishment will follow if the evil is not corrected — perhaps repeat the warning with greater force if necessary; finally, state the rule. By this course of procedure the teacher takes his pupils into his confidence, and calls them to his aid rather than antagonizes them.

3. *Be firm in administering a rule when made.*—When a rule is really necessary, let its requirements be plainly stated, and then hold the pupils to it. The children must not gain the impression that because the teacher has been

reluctant in making restrictions he will be uncertain in carrying them out. The teacher must not forget his own rules, nor should he have so many that he or his pupils will be in danger of forgetting them. I shall show in the discussion of Appeal to Honor that a nobler principle than government by rules should be employed in the management of a school. Looseness in enforcing rules is disastrous, and children soon discover whether or not the teacher means what he says. Firmness without anger, persistency without nagging, vigilance without spying, will secure respect both for the teacher and for the regulations which he finds necessary to establish.

4. *Repeal a rule when it is no longer necessary.*— Some rules must be retained as permanent regulations of the school. Others are merely temporary. When a rule has served its purpose and is no longer necessary, let it be formally withdrawn. No rule should be allowed to become a "dead letter."

Let me illustrate this point. Lying next to a school-ground was a vacant field upon which the children were allowed freely to play. This field was finally ploughed and a crop of wheat sowed. Of course, it became necessary to restrict the children in their use of the field, and this was done so effectually that, even though there was no dividing-fence, the owner told the principal that his crop had not been damaged in the least by the pupils, and that "the first swath of grain was as heavy as any." After the removal of the crop there was no longer any reason for restriction, but the principal would not allow the children to take possession of the ground until the rule had been repealed. He thus inculcated a respect for law as such.

There are so many laws, which long since have lost

their effectiveness, on the statute-books of every State, that even the vital enactments are brought into disrespect. A law, whether of school or State, should be obeyed. There is great need of cultivating a wholesome respect for law in our country, and nowhere can this be done so well as in the school by means of a rigid enforcement of rules that are necessary, and by the repealing of those that are no longer useful. By pursuing this course, children will learn respect for all law, national, State, and municipal.

Appeal to Honor as a Means of Discipline. — As soon as children are old enough to use discretion they should be trained to self-government, which is the highest form of discipline. The means of reaching this is not through government by rules, but through a far higher principle, that of appeal to honor. Many teachers misuse this term, employing the name without applying the principle. The mere use of the name does not prove that pupils are being put on their honor. I have heard teachers say, "Now, children, I am going to put you on your honor," when they had not been trained to understand the meaning of the term, and when perhaps they were destitute of honor. Surely they cannot be put on their honor under these circumstances. They must be taught what is meant by the expression, and trained to apply the principle. I shall try to show what is meant by appeal to honor, and indicate the manner of bringing children to the point where they may be trusted to put it in force. It means perfect frankness on the part of the teacher, no sneaking or underhanded practice, or suspicion. It does not mean that open measures may not be employed to discover wrong-doing, or that punishment will not follow the dis-

covery of evil. It does not mean that authority is resigned by the teacher, or that he yields his right and duty to call offenders to an account. Nor does it mean that because confidence may be extended so far as the teacher in his judgment has found to be wise, it must be extended to all matters of discipline. It must be approached gradually, depending upon the moral conceptions that the children already possess. The teacher's conception of appeal to honor should be carefully explained to the school, and the limits within which appeal to honor is to be exercised definitely determined. It is not of the slightest use to attempt this form of discipline without taking these preliminary steps. Indeed, to put children to such a test without bringing them to understand what is expected is a mere abuse of a noble principle, if not worse. It would be training them in hypocrisy, and would be degrading rather than ennobling, as appeal to honor should be if rightly employed.

Perhaps I can make the point clear by stating what took place in a school, and by showing how it was brought about. A young principal was in charge of a school of some four hundred children with eight assistant teachers. He presided over a large room which seated about one hundred children ranging from ten to eighteen years of age, where he heard his classes recite. Whenever he visited other rooms it was necessary to leave his pupils alone. One day, after he had been at the head of the school for several years, he left his room and went to another part of the building, leaving no one in charge. After an absence of perhaps half an hour, he returned and found a gentleman sitting upon the platform waiting for him. The visitor said: "I have visited a great many

schools, but have found here the best discipline I ever saw." "That is very gratifying to me," said the principal. "What have you seen?" "When I came into this room," replied the visitor, "I found everything so quiet and orderly that I expected to find you sitting in a seat somewhere assisting a pupil. But I soon discovered that you were not here. I came into the room without announcement, have been sitting here fully twenty minutes, and there has not been a single disorderly act, nor has anything been done that might not have been done had you been present. Every pupil has quietly attended to his own business as though it were the only thing to do. It is most remarkable order, and I congratulate you most heartily." The young man told him that he frequently left the pupils alone, expecting them to be more careful of their conduct in his absence than in his presence, and that they rarely disappointed him. He placed his pupils on their honor, and they were not found wanting.

Now, this result had not been attained in a day, but it came after long-continued, careful, and patient training. It was well worth all it cost, for his pupils had at last grasped the idea that it was their duty to govern themselves, and that they should do it as well when alone as when under the eye of the teacher. His absence was no signal for disorder, but only a greater reason for good order, because the responsibility of it rested upon them. It is a good thing to get people to accept responsibility. Many a man has been encouraged to renewed exertion by having responsibilities laid upon him. Finding that others have confidence in him, he begins to have confidence in himself, and that is the first essential to success. This is one of the strongest arguments for the employment of

the principle of appeal to honor as the basis of school discipline.

I have given the result obtained in a certain school of discipline secured through putting pupils on their honor. Perhaps a detail of the method which was employed to reach this result will not only make clear what is meant by this principle, but also suggest the manner of attaining it. It was as follows:

1. *Explain the meaning of appeal to honor.* — Many children, as we have seen, have very misty notions as to what it means to be placed on their honor. They must be taught that it calls for the exercise of their own ideas of right and wrong; that they should behave as well in the teacher's absence as in his presence, if not better; that his leaving the room is not a signal for mischief.

2. *Be genuine in putting them on their honor.* — Neither leave a monitor in charge, nor employ a secret agent to spy on their actions and report. This will, at the outset, defeat the purpose. Indeed, in no sense would the pupils be placed on their honor. Show that your confidence is absolute so far as the matter upon which they are trusted is concerned. Better that some mischief should remain undetected than that a pupil be employed to report. If mischief has been done in his absence, the wise and watchful teacher will soon discover it. Too profound stillness, too great diligence in study, accompanied with a covert watching of the teacher, as well as marks of disorder in the schoolroom, would at once awaken the teacher's suspicion. A careful study of the faces of the pupils will almost invariably reveal the guilty parties, who, when discovered, must be summarily dealt with.

3. *Do not attempt too much at once.* — The teacher

has certain ideals that he wishes his pupils to gain. They must be led up to these ideals step by step. If too much is attempted at once, the purpose will not be reached. Appeal to honor may be an entirely new thought to them, especially as to its practical bearing upon school life. It is, therefore, difficult for them to grasp the idea; hence at the outset the teacher must utilize this method of discipline with discretion. If pupils have not been accustomed to being left alone, a few minutes' absence on the part of the teacher is all that should be attempted upon the first trial. Children are restless and prone to mischief. Too much must not be expected of them. They should not be tempted beyond their power of endurance. Let the teacher's absence be taken as a matter of course, not calling for special comment or inviting to mischief. The idea that when the teacher's back is turned the pupils must needs get into disorder is wholly false. A proper use of appeal to honor will soon eradicate that idea. The time of absence can gradually be extended until the pupils can be left alone as long as desired, the absence being considered as nothing unusual, and the pupils attending to their work without thinking of mischief.

4. *Do not sneak.* — Children consider sneaking as despicable, even as grown folks do. In dealing with children there must be no tiptoeing, no peeping through the keyhole, no attempt to catch the children unawares. Such a course destroys all thought of honor, because it is dishonorable itself. If a teacher practises such a means of detection, he should say nothing about honor. Perfect frankness will win the children's respect, and in due time make them ashamed of conduct out of harmony with this

idea. The boys of Rugby could not lie to Dr. Arnold because he would believe them. The perfect frankness and genuineness of the man made them ashamed to be other than frank and genuine in dealing with him. Once more, it must not be forgotten that most of the pupils are well-disposed, and if the majority are led to right-doing the victory will soon be won.

5. *Call offenders to strict account.* — An appeal to honor by no means excuses wrong action. If a guilty one is discovered, — and a discovery is usually not a difficult matter, — let the punishment be sure and sufficient. Let the children see that a violation of your confidence is treachery, is hypocrisy, is the more grievous evil because of the very frankness of the teacher. Therefore punishment for such betrayal should be more severe than for the same mischief committed when the teacher is in the room. An effective punishment for a pupil who will not behave when the teacher's back is turned, is for the teacher to take the offender with him upon leaving the room the next time. Says the teacher: "Come, William, I am going to visit the primary rooms, and you are to go with me. I can trust the rest of the class, but you have proved yourself unworthy of confidence. You cannot behave yourself without me; you disturb the good order and destroy the good name of my school, therefore I must take you with me." No child will be likely to go through this experience twice, and the whole room also will take the lesson to heart.

6. *Finally, treat pupils as though honorable action only is expected.* — Suspicion awakens evil, and engenders the spirit which makes suspicion justifiable. On the other hand, confidence begets the spirit which makes confidence possible. The teacher should not stand before his

class and advertise the fact that he is going to leave them alone and wants them to be good, unless it be at first in explaining appeal to honor. Let there be no fuss about it, — set the pupils at work, go out of the room without a word about order, and act as though it is understood and expected that every one will attend to his own business. Children can be trained to do this; they were trained to do it in the school above mentioned. Thus, the notion among children that the withdrawal of the teacher from the room for a few minutes is a challenge for them to start mischief, may be wholly eliminated.

I have taken the matter of leaving pupils alone as an illustration of a method of appealing to honor. In all matters of discipline the same result can be secured by a like method of procedure, until the children become a law unto themselves. The moral effect of this is unmistakable and inestimable. The child is trained to exactly the same principle that he ought to follow in his later life, — a principle whose practice will prepare him for good citizenship and self-controlled living. Thus he is under a far broader law than school regulations, —the moral law, the voice of his own educated conscience, rather than the watchful eye of the teacher. He is safer, for his monitor is always with him, whereas he and his teacher must soon part. He will be guided by his moral consciousness. Not that his teacher's wishes and opinions will be ignored by him. On the contrary, the teacher who has the power to train the child to the lofty ideal that is necessary to make appeal to honor effective will command respect, and will make impressions that will be as lasting as eternity. Appeal to honor is the highest form of discipline, and every teacher should seek to bring his pupils to this ideal.

Use of Monitors. — Monitors may be used to assist in the mechanical duties of the school, such as caring for the blackboards, distributing materials and books, looking after shades and windows, etc. But they should not be employed either in teaching or in disciplining. Their use in correcting papers, even, is a questionable expedient. Children lack the judgment, the discretion, the fairness, and the knowledge necessary to correct each others' papers. The burden of correcting papers is a severe tax upon the teacher's time and strength, from which there seems to be no escape. Many lessons can be taught better in criticising papers than in any other way. Indeed, some things, like composition work, can be done in no other way. It is better, however, to have fewer written exercises and to have them well executed, than to have so many that the help of pupils must be accepted. Corrections made by schoolmates will not command the same respect as those made by the teacher. In matters of discipline it is unfair to call upon children to act as monitors, for it subjects them to the suspicion of their fellow-pupils and makes them unpopular on the one hand, and affords them an opportunity to punish enemies on the other. Injustice may thus be done to both parties. The teacher has no right to place a child in such a position, and therefore he should never assign any form of discipline to a monitor. The teacher alone is clothed with authority, and he cannot delegate this to another who is not clothed with like authority.

Keeping Control. — By virtue of the authority vested in him, the teacher has a right to control. He is responsible for the good order of the school. Just how much liberty he may allow his pupils depends upon his own personality.

It is like driving a spirited team. The horses may rush along at a great pace, but if they yield to pressure upon the rein, or listen to a word of command, there is safety, no matter what the speed. If, however, they take the bit in their teeth and resist the driver's arm, there is danger even though the pace is not fast, because control is lost. Just so in the school: if the tightening of the reins of government by the teacher is not followed by immediate submission, there is danger. Never lose control of the school, no matter what the conditions are. The teacher must often tighten the reins to prove whether or not the school is running away with him.

A Rational Relation Between Teachers and Pupils. — Rosenkranz teaches that authority and obedience are natural relations between parents and children, between teachers and pupils. Gordy says of the child,[1] "If his parents and teachers are compelled by their reason to require of him what they do, as fast as his own reason develops he will become aware of the fact. This will make him feel that all their requirements spring from the same source, and will strengthen his impulse towards obedience, — and all the more because the conscientious parent or teacher will be certain to be the object of enthusiastic affection. But loving a person who is felt to be guided by reason is a long stride towards rational life; whom the child loves, he wishes to resemble; and when he begins to be aware that his mother is governed by reason, not by caprice, he begins to form a new ideal. When this step is taken, there is a change in the persons who are playing important parts in the drama of the child's life.

[1] Gordy's "A Broader Elementary Education," p. 292.

Before this the child has been governed by motives growing out of his private self. The mother and teacher have been able only to appeal to his lower nature; there has been nothing else to appeal to. Now the higher nature begins to assert itself; the rational self becomes the ally of the teacher."

But this is not all. Gordy further adds, "Not only so: the teacher who is guided by reason in his dealings with his pupils yields to its dictates because he lives a rational life. . . . Now the teacher who lives a rational life cannot fail to present to the child's imitative nature a copy which he will have a disposition to imitate."

By following the suggestions of this chapter I believe that the teacher will secure wholesome discipline, under which the natural relations between teacher and pupil will be maintained, the pupils largely governing themselves, and the teacher winning for himself the lasting respect and affection of his pupils whom he has so wisely guided, and who have learned that he is their real friend.

CHAPTER VIII.

PUNISHMENT.

It must be stated at the outset that the purpose of punishment in the school is quite different from that of the State. The school punishes to correct and reform the individual; the State punishes to avenge a wrong, to satisfy justice, to serve as an example for others. The school deals with immature, irresponsible beings; the State deals with those that are mature, that are capable of weighing their acts, that possess judgment. Indeed, so far as the State deals with children, it, too, seeks their reform, hence the maintenance of reform schools. Doubtless the State should give greater consideration to the question of reform even of its adult criminals than it does, and there is a tendency to do so in many sections of our country; but to certain crimes there must be attached fixed penalties, and the State must use its strong arm to check crime by punishing offenders so as to be a terror to evil-doers. This must never be a motive in dealing with young children. Punishment will have the effect of warning others, without doubt, but the teacher's motive in administering it should be fixed upon the culprit whose reformation is sought.

Definition of Punishment. — By punishment we mean a penalty imposed by some one in authority for a wrong done. Such penalty may be either physical or mental. Physical

punishment is inflicted upon children whose judgment is still undeveloped, and when other means of appeal have no effect. The wisest man put the matter pithily when he said, "Spare the rod and spoil the child." Parents use physical punishment as a means of correcting their children, for the simple reason that children must be taught to mind, and are lacking in the judgment that comes with riper years. Whether physical punishment can be safely abandoned when the child has arrived at school age, whether the child has sufficient discernment, is mature enough to be free from all form of corporal punishment, may be seriously questioned. If more dangerous forms of punishment have been adopted in its stead, as is undoubtedly often the case, the last state may be worse than the first. I purpose to discuss this question more fully later in this chapter.

The most terrible punishment that can be inflicted is mental, that which touches the very soul. The motorman who through carelessness sent his car forward instead of backward, causing a collision with a train which resulted in the loss of human life, surely suffered greater anguish than any physical punishment could bring. Physical pain is but temporary, but mental pain may last for a lifetime. The teacher must not forget that there are wounds that are deeper than any rod can inflict, wounds that never heal, such as are caused by sarcasm, unjust suspicion, misconception, and treachery.

Principles Governing Punishment.— I wish to lay down a number of principles governing punishment, which, had I known them earlier in life, would have saved me from many mistakes.

1. *The least punishment that will accomplish the end is always the right punishment.* — Seneca says: "Who condemns quickly, condemns willingly; and who punishes too much, punishes improperly." Let not the teacher ask, "What does the child deserve for this offence?" nor "What punishment can I mete out that will be just?" but rather, "Will this be sufficient to make him see his error and abstain from it in the future?" or "Will this secure his reformation?" If a punishment has been imposed calling for restriction for a given period, and the desired end has been attained before the expiration of the sentence, let the restriction be removed. If the State can reduce a criminal's sentence on account of good behavior, surely the teacher who is dealing with young children can do the same with them. On the other hand, this does not mean that punishment is to be made ineffective by its lack of seriousness or thoroughness. The principle stated requires that the *end shall be accomplished.* Anything less than this would be a travesty, and school discipline would fail to win respect, and might prove to be the worst kind of treatment that could be administered to the child.

2. *The punishment should be the sequence of the offence.* — This is no new principle. Basil the Great in the fourth century taught that every misdeed should be punished in such a way that the punishment shall be an exercise in self-command and shall tend to correct the fault. For example, if a child has lied, used profane language, or been quarrelsome, give him solitude and fasting. If he is greedy, let him stand by and see others eat, while he remains hungry. Rousseau would give his Émile perfect freedom, for the purpose of education is to set the individual free. If he disobeys, do not punish him: disobedience

works its own punishment. Herbert Spencer discusses this principle at considerable length, and gives many illustrations of its practice in the home, in school, and in life. He says: "Punishments we call them, in the absence of a better word; for they are not punishments in the literal sense. They are not artificial and unnecessary inflictions of pain, but are simply the beneficent checks to actions that are at variance with bodily welfare — checks in the absence of which life would quickly be destroyed by bodily injuries. It is the peculiarity of these penalties, if we must so call them, that they are nothing more than the *unavoidable consequences* of the deeds which they follow; they are nothing more than the *inevitable reactions* entailed by the child's actions." Again, he shows how the same law holds true later in life, as follows: "After home education has ceased, and when there are no longer parents and teachers to forbid this or that kind of conduct, there comes into play a discipline like that by which the young child is taught its first lessons in self-guidance. If the youth entering upon the business of life idles away his time, and fulfils slowly or unskilfully the duties intrusted to him, there by and by follows the natural penalty: he is discharged, and left to suffer for a while the evils of relative poverty. On the unpunctual man, failing alike his appointments of business and pleasure, there continually falls the consequent inconveniences, losses, and deprivations. The avaricious tradesman who charges too high a rate of profit loses his customers, and so he is checked in his greediness. Diminishing practice teaches the inattentive doctor to bestow more trouble on his patients. . . . And so on through the life of every citizen." Further he adds: "Is it not manifest that as 'ministers and interpreters of

Nature' it is the function of parents to see that their children habitually experience the true consequences of their conduct — the natural reactions: neither warding them off, nor intensifying them, nor putting artificial consequences in place of them?"

The intelligent teacher will have no trouble in applying this natural law to nearly all offences that need punishment. If a child misbehaves on the playground, the natural sequence is to deprive him of its use; if he is quarrelsome on the way home from school, let him be detained until the others are gone; if he annoys his seatmates, he should be isolated from them; if he is guilty of falsehood, make him feel the loss of the teacher's respect and confidence. Such just punishments will appeal to the offender as the natural sequence of his own wrong-doing, and will tend to make him careful not to repeat the offence, the consequences of which fall upon his own head.

3. *Punishment must aim to reach the individual rather than serve as an example for others.* — We have seen that the purpose of punishment in the school is very different from that of the State. But there is too often a tendency on the part of young teachers to punish for the sake of example to others. "If I do not punish him, others will do the same thing," reasons the teacher. This thought should be dismissed in considering a case, and each individual child should be treated for an offence as if he were the only child in the school. The motives of the child, the temptation, the home-training, the environment, the temperament, all must be considered, and then the punishment that seems wise in that particular case administered. The same offence committed by different pupils may merit a different punishment in each instance, and this plan allows

the teacher to choose and administer it. This may subject the teacher to the charge of partiality, but this charge will fall to the ground when it is seen that the spirit of fairness and justice actuates the treatment of every child. The pupils will soon learn that the sole motive of the teacher is their good, and that the careful investigation entered upon in each case is a warrant for honesty of purpose. It need not be said, after the above discussion, that while the State must have fixed penalties attached to each crime, no penalties must be attached to each anticipated offence among children.

The application of these three general principles of punishment will enable the teacher to act justly and wisely, and it will furnish a much broader basis of discipline than a set of specific directions would do. Besides this, it permits each child and each offence to be considered upon the individual merits of the case. It may be well, however, to discuss different forms of punishment, the adaptability of which must be left to each teacher.

Kinds of Punishment.—In considering this question, I shall proceed from the simplest to the most serious forms of punishment, though it is admitted that owing to differences in the temperament of children, and in their home training, this order will not always hold. To the child that is accustomed to blows at home, sometimes a word of kindly and earnest reproach will have far more effect than blows. But the order given may be taken as fairly representing a progression in the seriousness of forms of punishment.

1. *Reproof.*—Reproof shows the displeasure of the teacher. It may be by look or word, private or public,

individual or general. I shall never forget receiving this first form of reproof many years ago. It was one evening in the little village church of my boyhood. It was not yet time for the service to begin, and a group of young people were laughing and chatting together, — boys and girls of about sixteen or seventeen years of age, — when I made a slighting allusion to the house of God, quite thoughtlessly, with no intention of being sacrilegious. A young lady some years our senior, whom we all loved and respected, was sitting with us and overheard my remark. She did not utter a word, but the look of surprise and reproach that she gave me was far more effective than words. I was unable even to stammer an apology. Had she said to me, "What! you make such an allusion to a place set apart for the worship of the Almighty! I did not expect it, and it grieves me beyond measure," it would not have cut me half so much as her mere look did. I have never forgotten that reproof, and the grief and shame caused by my thoughtless word remain indelibly impressed upon my memory. It is unnecessary to say that no such expression has ever escaped my lips from that time to this. It was the look of Jesus that broke Peter's heart after he had thrice denied his Lord, and caused him to go out and weep bitter tears of repentance.

If a word of reproof must be spoken, it should not be in anger or with harshness. Sometimes it must be given with firmness, but with children it should rarely be attended with severity. And yet it should be plain and decisive, so as not to be misunderstood. There are occasions when reproof should be publicly administered, but generally the effect will be better if it be done in private. The teacher can come closer to the child and make him see his wrong

in its true light, whereas in the presence of other children the pupil is more apt to be defiant. Private reproof also deprives the child of the support of his comrades. General reproof should be administered when a large number are involved, or when an evil tendency that needs checking is noticed in the school. If, however, only a few are guilty, the reproof should be individual.

Reproof, while the simplest form of punishment, is the most general, and in a well-disciplined school it will be about the only punishment needed. Certainly for the majority of the school this will be true.

2. *Isolation.* — If a child proves himself incapable of associating with others without infringing upon their rights, he must be isolated from them. If in his seat he disturbs others, he must be seated by himself; if on the playground he is quarrelsome, or bullying, his right to play with others is forfeited; if in going home with his comrades he creates disturbance, he must remain until they are gone. Isolation should not be carried to the extent of shutting a child in a cellar or in a dark room. A grievous wrong may thus be done him by rousing his fears or even filling him with terror.

3. *Withdrawal of privileges.* — In every well-regulated school there are certain privileges that may be granted to the pupils. How many and what these are will depend upon local circumstances, upon the training the children have had, and upon the power of the teacher to keep control. Freedom to go to the dictionary, to the waste-basket, to get a drink, to move about the schoolroom in their work, may generally be allowed. It is doubtful if these privileges can be extended outside the schoolroom. To go out-of-doors at pleasure offers too great a temptation

to children lacking in judgment, and mischief is likely to follow. Each teacher, however, will be able to settle this question for himself in his own school. Whatever privileges are allowed, they must be regarded as of great value; their misuse is a most serious offence, because it is a betrayal of confidence. If their abuse is so regarded, the withdrawal of them becomes a severe punishment.

4. *Withdrawal of confidence.* — Greater than any form of punishment yet discussed is the withdrawal of confidence by the teacher. To merit this the pupil must be guilty of a most grievous offence, such as lying, cheating, stealing, deception, etc. The relationship between teacher and pupil should be so close that they have mutual confidence in each other. When this is true the loss of the teacher's confidence will be a very grave matter to the pupil, especially as he knows that the loss was occasioned by his own bad conduct. When the offender is made to see the evil of his act, the way is open for reformation; and complete confidence can be restored only when complete reformation has been brought about. The teacher will be glad to extend complete forgiveness to the truly repentant, and this will be followed by the restoration of his confidence.

5. *Consult the parents.* — It is not to be understood that parents have not been consulted up to this point. There should be a perfect understanding between parents and teacher, not only in regard to the progress of the pupils in their studies, but also as to their conduct. Frequent and frank consultations should take place between these interested parties, thereby saving misunderstandings and furthering the interests of the school. By consulting parents, I mean that before the next form of punishment — that of suspension — is carried out, it is the right of

the parent to know the danger that is threatened. I have illustrated this point in another connection (see p. 243), and wish further to say that when the conduct of a child is such that extreme measures are likely to follow, the parent should be notified, and his co-operation solicited, in order, perchance, that the child may be saved. By this means a cure may be effected, the child retained in school, and the parent not be humiliated. If the parent fails to give the support solicited, and the evil continues, he can find no fault if severe measures are employed.

6. *Suspension.* — When a child, through continued insubordination, becomes a menace to good order, the teacher has a right to resort to suspension. This right should not be exercised too freely. The school is for the children, and they should be kept there if possible. But there are times when the teacher's duty to his pupils demands the dismissal of an offender from school. If all other means have been tried without avail, if a pupil's conduct is inimical to good order, if his moral life is such as to imperil the good morals of other children, it certainly is the duty of the teacher to dismiss him from the school. We hear a great deal about "that bad boy." Now, there must be no relaxation of effort to reform and save the bad boy. The school has done a noble work in saving many a boy whose outside environment was dragging him to destruction. To many the school is the only hope of redemption, and therefore its glorious work in this respect must go on. The sympathy of the teacher, the example of good children, the wholesome atmosphere of the school, the chaste environment, — all these, and other influences about the school, have combined to awaken a desire in the bad boy to become good, and have helped him to realize that desire. Blessed is the

influence of the right kind of a school-teacher, and blessed is the reforming power of a school imbued with noble ideals.

But the good boy, the many good boys and girls, must not be contaminated by the immoral and evil example of a vicious boy. If he cannot be reformed without endangering the morals of others, the school is no place for him; he belongs in a reformatory. I repeat, this is not to be interpreted as a lack of interest in or abandonment of the bad boy to his evil ways to become a prey upon society; let the teacher do his utmost to save such a child; but it is a plea for the good child, that he may be kept good; that he may not be lost or spoiled through evil association. The child already good is potentially worth as much to the world as the child who is bad, but who may become good. Surely we must not lose what already has been gained, for the uncertainties of saving those who are evil. If parents have carefully brought up their children and trained them to good habits, the school must not allow this good work to be undone! The school must certainly stand for as high morals as those of the best homes and the community. And so I put in a strong plea for the preservation of the good already attained; for the protection of children who come from pure homes and have pure ideals; for the maintenance of high moral living, even if individuals who stand in the way of these ends must be sacrificed. A gentleman moved into a town where there were two schools, a public and a private one. Believing from principle in the public school, he sent his three daughters to that institution. After a few days, he withdrew them and placed them in the private school, where his tuition bill was three hundred

dollars a year. "My daughters," said he, "have been subjected to vulgar language and indecent acts such as I could not allow under any consideration." I think that his rights as a citizen to the free and proper education of his children were infringed upon by the failure of the school to maintain a pure and moral tone. Those who wilfully and persistently prevent a moral tone should be removed. This must be done, or the school had better be closed.

There are times when suspension must be immediate, such as when the pupil is defiant and refuses to obey, when he creates a disturbance that hinders the school-work; then he must be dismissed at once, or the teacher's authority will be lost. But in general, suspension should take place only after repeated warnings, and after parents also have been warned. It may be well for the teacher to keep a private record of the conduct of especially troublesome children, noting the offence committed, giving day and date, the punishment inflicted, etc. Children will report to their parents only the last offence as a cause of suspension. "I only touched John Jones a little with my foot, and the teacher sent me home," is the report. Now, the teacher's record shows a long list of offences, and his kicking John Jones was the "last straw." Let this record be shown the parent, and it will be found to be most convincing both to him and to the school trustee. It is therefore an excellent protection to the teacher. It also serves as restraint to pupils, who dislike to have their offences registered. This record should be most private, and it should not be kept as a future witness against the men and women of later years.

When a pupil is suspended, both parent and trustee

should be notified at once, and reasons therefor should be given to them. The school trustee is the natural friend of the teacher whom he has employed, and is entitled, by virtue of his office, to learn about important school matters direct from the teacher at the earliest possible moment.

7. *Expulsion.* — In most States the final act of expulsion rests with the board of education, the teacher having the right to suspend only. What we have heretofore said about suspension applies equally well here, the difference being that expulsion is permanent, while suspension is temporary. If expulsion is necessary, the child should be sent to a truant or reform school. It often occurs that incorrigible pupils deliberately commit acts that will cause their expulsion, in order that they may escape going to school, and be unhindered in their vagrancy. Now, if such dismissal were followed by the inevitable commitment to another institution, where the restrictions were greater and the rules more rigidly enforced, no child would seek to be expelled. It would also have a most salutary influence upon the discipline of the school. The incorrigible child is dismissed from the school because he is a menace and a nuisance there, but too often the authorities shirk their duty to him and to the State by paying no further attention to him. He is thus likely to become a worthless vagabond, a danger to society, when he might be saved to usefulness and good citizenship if he were placed under wholesome restraint and properly taught. I have shown elsewhere (p. 93) that some pupils must not be retained in the school when the good of the school requires their removal; but the State must see to it that they are properly instructed in suitable schools where the idea of reform may be carried out before they are fixed in their evil

habits. The institutions for this purpose need not be regarded as prisons or as penal institutions, but as schools, to attend which does not carry a mark of shame or degradation. It is from this class of incorrigible children who cannot be kept in the school, and who are left free to spend their time in idleness and vagabondage, that the ranks of criminals are augmented; and the authorities make a serious mistake in not properly taking care of intractable pupils when they are dismissed from the public school.

Both suspension and expulsion should be applied very rarely, but when the good of the school demands them, because of continued disobedience or immoral example on the part of a pupil, they should be enforced without fear or favor.

8. *Corporal punishment.* — Many States of the Union forbid corporal punishment in the schools. Wherever this is true, it only remains for the teacher faithfully to obey the law. The usual interpretation of the statute is that it refers to the use of the rod, and many teachers, therefore, employ other forms of corporal punishment in order to secure obedience. It may be remarked that some of the forms of punishment adopted are far more dangerous and humiliating than the use of the rod. Pulling the hair or ears, slapping the face, jerking or shaking, surely are corporal punishment, and all are worse than a reasonable use of the rod. Even standing upon the floor, staying after school, writing long lists of words, are inflictions of bodily pain. When the rod was abolished many teachers resorted to far more severe and humiliating punishments, such as sarcasm, ridicule, scolding, giving memory tasks, requiring long written exercises, etc. From an ethical

standpoint, these expedients can work immeasurable and lasting harm, while physical chastisement with little children has the effect of bringing them to an immediate sense of their wrong-doing, and does not leave a permanent sting. Few who were brought up a generation ago, when the rod was used in the home and the school, retain bitter feelings towards those who administered it, unless the punishment was conspicuously unjust. But the biting word, the vindictive manner, the vitriolic sarcasm, left a deep impression that it is impossible to eradicate.

Many hold that in certain rare cases the rod is the natural and humane form of punishment, both in the home and in the school, with young children who still lack the judgment to weigh the consequences of a wrong deed, and to whom the appeal of reason cannot yet be made; that it is far better to bring them to obedience and respect for law by this means than to temporize and compromise with them, or turn them upon the street.

Many children never learn obedience in the home, they are not brought into submission in the school, and thus they go out into life with an impression that there is no authority which they must obey, that they are a law unto themselves. It is true that the great majority of children in the school recognize authority and yield compliance to its requirements. But what about the dangerous minority in the school and in the State for whom penal laws are made? It is they who cause anxiety, who test the strength of the law, and not the majority. If they do not learn to respect authority, they will furnish recruits to the great army of criminals. Better far for the child to learn the lesson of obedience in the home or in the school than to learn it through the rigid, stern, and relentless authority

of the State, which is strong enough to compel submission behind its prison doors.

In States and communities where corporal punishment is not prohibited by law, its use should be hedged about with every legal precaution. Teachers should understand, as I have already said, that pulling the ears, slapping, or "shaking up" are forms of corporal punishment that are not to be tolerated. There must be no brutality in our schools. The fact that the old-time, brutal forms of punishment have been to a large degree abandoned is an evidence of a more humane temper and more civilized methods of discipline.

Where corporal punishment is allowed, let the teacher who abuses its exercise be punished. Let every case of whipping be reported at once to the school board and to the parents, the report giving the causes that led up to the chastisement, and specifying the kind and amount of punishment inflicted, and let a record of the occurrence be kept. A teacher who is required to do this would be sufficiently restrained, for he would know that a too frequent use of the rod would be a confession of weakness and would subject him to criticism.

The result would be that the rod would be seldom used, and only as a final resort; and ultimately it might be expected that its total abandonment would follow, even where it is now permitted. The sentiment of the public, the laws that exist, and the decisions of the courts abundantly support the teacher in the maintenance of discipline. If a child is not amenable to such discipline as is necessary for the good order of the school, he must be removed. Children who come to school must behave themselves, and where the teacher's authority is challenged by such an

insolent expression as, — "You dare not touch me; it's against the law," other means than the rod, and efficient ones, can be employed, the final means being dismissal from the school. Thus is made possible the enforcement of the wholesome and implicit obedience which is so essential to good order in the school, and so vital in the preparation for good citizenship.

I have attempted to present the different views upon this important subject. I have only to add that in States and communities where the law forbids it, no teacher should employ corporal punishment in any form, as a means of discipline. Even though the parent may give his consent to its infliction, the teacher should not accept such a responsibility, for the law of the State is higher than the parent's will, and his consent that the law should be violated cannot be valid justification to the teacher.

CHAPTER IX.

THE TREATMENT OF SCHOOL EVILS.[1]

THERE are certain evils connected with every school that tax the ingenuity and try the patience of the teacher. Some of these are incident to school life merely, while others are of vital importance in the formation of good character. It is proposed in this chapter to point out the most glaring of these evils, and to suggest the means of eradicating them.

1. **Carelessness.**—Slovenly dress, untidy personal habits, disorder about the desk, soiled and uncovered text-books, lack of neatness in school-work, whether handed in or placed on the blackboard, are some of the many forms of carelessness in the school. Very often home environment is responsible for these evils in children, but this does not excuse the teacher from trying to remove these habits and to establish good ones in their stead. One of the chief glories of our public schools is that pupils are developed into noble manhood and womanhood however unfavorable their home conditions. Many children accustomed to squalor and filth, often trained to vicious habits, surrounded

[1] The topics treated in this chapter might well be considered as sub-heads under the principle already enunciated, namely, that the punishment should be the natural sequence of the offence. The importance of these topics, however, is such that I deem it advisable to devote a chapter to them.

in their home life by every form of degradation and sin, through the wise leadership and patient direction of the teacher are brought to throw off their home habits and adopt those of decent society. The example of their schoolmates also is very effective in bringing about this result. Happy the condition of a school when the teacher has succeeded in making cleanliness of person and neatness of dress a popular sentiment. Inexpensive and neat apparel is within the reach of every American child, and I know of no prettier sight than a classroom full of tidily dressed, bright-faced, happy little children.

"What are you going to do with that paper?" was asked of a boy who held in his hand a scrap of dirty paper containing some straggling arithmetic work. "Why, hand it in to my teacher," was the reply. "Do you mean to tell me that your teacher will accept *that?*" pursued his questioner. The boy seemed for the first time to realize that such work was unfit to present to his teacher. Evidently the teacher had failed in her duty, else it would have been impossible for him to offer such disreputable work. Careless work should be rejected at once, whether it be work handed in, blackboard exercises, oral recitation, or whatever the task. The only way to cure carelessness is by constant watchfulness and firmness, and by never accepting anything less than the child's best endeavor. The correction of this evil is of such importance to success in life that the teacher must persist in combating the evil until habits of tidiness and carefulness are established.

2. **Laziness.** — "There never was such a thing as a lazy child born on earth," says Col. Parker. All young life is full of activity; and if a child is not active, will neither

play nor work, one may be sure that he is ill either in body or mind. Often the child that is indolent with his school-work is active enough on the playground; he is not therefore altogether idle. While there may be no absolute laziness, it is certain that all men are relatively lazy; that is, there are some things that they do not like to do, and will escape doing if possible. The mathematical expert might soon lay down the spade on a hot August day, while he would work half the night over an abstruse problem. On the other hand, the man inured to hard physical toil would labor in the ditch the whole day without ceasing, but would fall asleep in a few minutes over the problem. Now, each might be said to be lazy in one field and diligent enough in another.

It is the duty of the teacher to utilize the present interest of the child, to lead him in to other interests with which he must become acquainted. It does not follow that because a child does not like to do a thing he is to be excused from doing it. Tasks must be performed, and one of the most valuable lessons in life is to learn to do what ought to be done, regardless of personal inclination. Locke says, "The foundation of all virtue consists in following the dictates of reason even though appetite lead the other way." Moreover, it often occurs that through doing a required and, it may be, unpleasant task, one comes to like what has been held in aversion because it was not understood or appreciated. In every course of study there are subjects that the student would gladly omit, but he cannot do so if he is to secure a diploma at the end of the course. How often do the dreaded subjects become a delight when they are mastered and their value appreciated! There is no royal road to learning, and the wisdom

of educators of many generations as outlined in the course of study, and also that of the teacher, must give direction to the pupil's study. His own whims, or his indolent desire to proceed along the line of the least resistance, must be disregarded.

The treatment of this question requires great insight on the part of the teacher. Having studied the child's interests, and discovered his favorite employment, the teacher must utilize this to lead him to do work which, perhaps, he does not like but ought to do. Thus, if a boy is fond of drawing, give him special privileges in that on condition that he do some other work for which he has less liking. If he wants to devote all his time to arithmetic, as large boys in the country who can attend school only for the winter months often wish to do, show him that he cannot profitably spend all his time on one subject, and that without loss to his arithmetic work, he can also pursue other studies.

Many of the great geniuses of the world have been called lazy. The father of Sir Joshua Reynolds wrote on one of his son's drawings, "Done by Joshua out of pure idleness." Turner, the greatest of landscape painters, was intended for a barber; Schiller, the great German poet, was destined for a surgeon; Galileo was intended for a physician; Handel was set apart for a lawyer; James Watt was scolded by his grandmother because he was too lazy to do anything but watch the steam in the tea-kettle; Darwin was considered stupid. Each of these men would be called lazy in the common acceptance of the term. Therefore, the teacher must not despair of the lazy child, but seek to discover his natural bent, and through that lead him to undertake the mastery of distaste-

ful work which he must not be allowed to neglect or escape.

3. **Tardiness.** — Want of punctuality is one of the most serious of school evils. The fault often lies with the home, where the late breakfast, indifference or lack of appreciation of the importance of punctuality, or a failure to send the children in time, causes tardiness. There are many devices that can be employed to correct this evil, such as roll of honor, interesting opening exercises, class banner, early dismissal on Friday afternoon, awakening class rivalry, etc. While these may be unobjectionable if properly used, they are apt to be temporary in their effect. They are based on the principle of rewarding for the performance of duty. Then, too, punishments are inflicted, such as, compelling delinquents to make up lost time, to go home for an excuse, to write long lists of words, to commit poetry to memory, etc. Some of these punishments surely are not a sequence of the offence, and others produce an evil effect upon the child in creating a dislike for the means employed in his punishment. Thus, a hatred for poetry or material committed to memory might be engendered because it is used as a means of punishment.

Requiring an excuse from home serves to inform parents of the delinquency of their children, but it is often regarded by them as a nuisance, while some parents will sign excuses for trivial causes or for none at all. Class rivalry is sometimes carried so far as to compel pupils who are late to return home, they preferring to be absent for the session rather than lower the standing of their class. It is needless to say that absence for a whole session is a worse evil

than a few minutes' tardiness. Teachers sometimes require tardy pupils to write the word "tardy" five hundred times; again, doors are locked at nine o'clock, and pupils who are late without a written excuse are required to return home and get one, no matter how far away they may live or what the weather may be. Of course, by the latter means the teacher can secure one hundred per cent in punctuality, but there is neither honesty, justice, nor wisdom in such a practice. When the prevention of tardiness creates a greater evil, the sooner the measures employed are abandoned the better.

While certain devices and forms of punishment may be employed in correcting the evil of tardiness, the teacher must seek a more fundamental principle in order effectually to cope with it. First of all, the children must be taught the moral wrong of want of punctuality. Many do not think that being even five minutes late makes any very great difference. They must be shown that they thus infringe upon the rights of their schoolmates, that they cause disturbance and loss of time whenever they come late. Their tardiness is not merely a personal matter; it affects the rest of the school, and therefore there is a moral side to the question which should be brought home to the children. In the next place, there is the business view. Examples should be given showing how business men regard want of punctuality — examples of the requirements of boards of directors of great enterprises, of the demands of business houses and factories, should be furnished; historical incidents in which great events have turned upon a few minutes' delay, as instanced by an army corps failing to be on time. Abundant illustrations will occur to the teacher, and the importance of

punctuality can thus be impressed upon the minds of the children.

Let the children ask their fathers what penalty they must pay in case they are ten minutes late at the factory, and thus bring the parents to see the importance of the lesson in punctuality which the school is trying to teach their children. This brings the question to the *moral* and *business* basis that should be at the foundation of the child's habit of punctuality. It will serve to make him punctual from a sense of right and not for superficial reasons, and the habit will follow him, not only through his school years, but also through life. I do not condemn the employment of devices as a temporary means to an end, but plead for instruction in the fundamental principles, and in the reasons for punctuality.

4. **Irregularity in Attendance.** — Since the ratio of average daily attendance in our common schools is less than seventy per cent of the enrolment in the same,[1] it will be seen that irregularity is a very serious evil. It is but fair to admit, however, that under "enrolment" are included all children between the ages of five and eighteen who attend school any time during the year. Still, many parents hold to the right of taking their children out of school at pleasure to assist at home, to help support the family, to make pleasure-trips, and for other unnecessary causes, and this occasions far more irregularity than is necessary. Aside from trivial causes, there is the more serious excuse, that of poverty at home and the need of the child's earnings for the support of the family. It may

[1] The United States Commissioner of Education reports 68.5 per cent for the year 1899–1900.

be said that the child's right to an education is supreme, and the parent must not interfere with that right. It may also be added that it is the duty of the State to protect the child in that right. By the enactment and enforcement of factory laws concerning child labor, and by its laws of compulsory attendance at school, the State already recognizes its duty to the child. The trouble is that too often the State fails effectively to enforce these laws. It were better for its own protection and as an economic measure that the State should enforce regularity of attendance, even though it might be necessary to assist pecuniarily the family that is obliged to depend upon the earnings of a child, rather than have the child deprived of school privileges. One needs but to refer to the notorious Jukes family to illustrate the point.[1]

The State should require regular attendance of every child from seven to fourteen years of age for every day that the school is in session. The enforcement of the law should not be left optional with school boards, but it should be obligatory under penalty of forfeiture of the apportionment of school moneys from the State to the district for non-enforcement. Thus, instead of finding the community arrayed against such a law, the board would find them watchful in its strict enforcement in order to avoid the loss of the State school funds, which would throw the heavy burden of the support of the school upon their own pockets.

But what shall the teacher do to correct irregularity in

[1] One Jukes, who grew up in ignorance and crime, together with his descendants, some twelve hundred in number, cost the State over $1,250,000 in trials, imprisonments, pauper charges, etc.; that is, over $1,000 each for every member of his family.

the absence of an efficient compulsory law? Much, certainly, can be done. "Make the school so interesting and attractive that the pupils will desire to come," says one. This is a good theory that will work with a large part of the pupils, and tend to keep them more regularly at school. It will not work with the habitual truant who does not come often enough to school to catch its spirit, and who — make the school never so interesting — finds more fun in fishing, in baseball, or in the circus. You must catch your boy before you can interest him in school, and catch him long enough to break up his habit of truancy. So, while the theory of making the school attractive sounds well, it fails to reach those who most need to be reached. These can be influenced only by compulsory laws thoroughly carried out. Many of the devices mentioned in the treatment of tardiness — such as the roll of honor, class spirit, banners, early dismissal, excuses from parents — can be employed in curing irregularity. But I think we must go deeper for an efficient remedy, always keeping in mind the energetic action of the school board in carrying out the law. Once more, the teacher must appeal to his pupils from a moral and from a business standpoint. Should the child say, "If I am absent it is my loss, and it is no one else's business," he should be shown the utter fallacy of this position. Absence from school is a detriment not only to the delinquent, but also to the whole class. The rate of progress in a study can only be such as the class as a whole can sustain, and any dead weight, whether it be caused by dulness or much absence, serves to retard progress. Now, justifiable absence, such as that caused by illness, can be borne cheerfully by both teacher and pupils; but unnecessary absence works an injustice to those who

have been regular, and the offender should be made to see this fact. Thus the moral aspect should be presented and explained, and the children taught that they must not encroach upon the rights of others.

In business affairs, irregularity on the part of employees leads to their discharge. No merchant or manufacturer will keep in his service a man who cannot be relied upon to be regularly in his place. This view of the matter should be presented to parents who often think that absence from school for a day or two does not matter with their children, but who admit that a similar absence in business would make a great difference. If the future man is to be steady and faithful in doing his duty; if he is to be reliable and trustworthy; if he is to be free from the shiftlessness that characterizes the tramp, — he must form right habits in childhood, and there is nothing like regularity of school attendance to establish these habits. Let the teacher utilize every suitable device to secure this end, and let the school authorities sustain him by the employment of every legitimate means at their command, and there will be a great improvement in school attendance — and, because of this, also far more efficient school-work.

5. **Tale-bearing.** — Little children are apt to be too ready to tattle about others. This habit will sometimes be checked by ignoring it, and sometimes reproof must be administered. Older children usually go to the other extreme, and refuse to "tell on" their comrades, under any and all circumstances. They have no conception of the difference between *tattling* and *testifying*. This distinction should be made clear to them. *Tattling* is telling things that are none of one's business for the sake of bringing others into

disgrace. *Testifying* is giving evidence to some one in authority for the sake of fixing guilt where it belongs, and in order to serve the ends of justice. Children should be taught that to report an evil committed against themselves may be a means of self-defence and not be tattling. Thus, if fighting is forbidden and a boy is hectored by others, he must either break the rule and fight, or report to the teacher. If he chooses the latter course, he shows his respect for law, and employs the only means he has to secure relief. Or, if a child has lost an article by theft and if he discovers the guilty party, to expose him would not be tattling.

When the good of the whole school is at stake, to report a known evil should not be regarded as tattling, for all are interested in the reputation of the school — it involves the interests of all the pupils. Two young ladies in a boarding-school once went to the principal and told him hesitatingly that some of the girls were betraying his confidence, and that their acts not only affected the good name of the school, but also endangered the reputation of the two guilty young ladies. They felt that it was their duty to the school, to the offending girls, who were their friends, to the principal who had trusted them, and to themselves, to call the attention of the principal to the wrong being perpetrated. Now, these young ladies were not mischief-makers, not tattlers. They showed the greatest moral courage and sense of responsibility by the course they took, and they won the highest respect of their principal. At the same time they saved their friends from ultimate expulsion and their school from disgrace. This high sense of honor should be cultivated among young people, and they should be taught that always

to refuse to tell against a comrade, no matter what the offence, is not only vicious in principle, but may also work evil to that comrade whom they would shield.

Shall pupils be compelled to tell when they possess knowledge of a wrong done and yet refuse to divulge it? This is a very difficult question to answer. In general, the scruples of the pupil should be respected; effort should be made to convince him of his duty to testify, and the matter should be placed before him in its proper light. If this is done, absolute refusal to tell will be rare. Let me suggest a method of procedure that will practically remove all necessity of resorting to compulsion. In the first place, the teacher must be frank with his pupils. He must not pretend to knowledge of the guilty person that he does not possess. Such pretension will deceive no one, while it will bring the teacher into disrepute with the pupils. Some boys, during recess, broke a window-pane in a neighboring house while snowballing. The owner made complaint, and the principal promised to satisfy him. When school was called, the boys were taken into a room by themselves, and the principal addressed them as follows: "Boys, a window-pane was shattered during recess at Mr. B.'s. Now, I do not know who did it, but presume it was an accident. I shall be very glad if the boy who did it will make it known." One of the boys arose at once and said, "I did it, sir." "Thank you, William, for your prompt response; will you see that the damage is repaired?" "Yes, sir," replied the boy. "Very well, boys. I felt sure that you would be frank with me. You may return to your work." That ended the incident, and such a course in similar cases would usually meet with a like result.

The following may be suggested as the proper order of pro

cedure when the perpetrator of an offence is unknown to the teacher: (1) State the offence, show its evil, point out wherein it may work injury to the innocent as well as the guilty, bring it before the school in its true light, and finally call upon the offender to take the responsibility of his act. (2) If there is no response, dismiss the matter till some future time, calling for a private confession. Let it be understood that no one else than the guilty one is to give information at this stage of the investigation. The whole responsibility is thrown upon him; there is to be no testimony even; much less, no suspicion of tattling. Should the first step pass without result, it will seldom occur that the second will not clear up the matter. For the majority of the school, who stand for law and order, will bring pressure to bear upon the offender to do his duty, because he has received a fair chance, and if he remains silent, he involves the whole school in his offence. (3) Should the guilty person still refuse to confess, the teacher should call attention to the fairness of the course pursued, to the meanness of the unknown culprit in allowing the whole school to share his blame, and to the fact that if their sense of honor required them to withhold their knowledge of the affair, up to this point, that sense should now be satisfied. This will serve to make the offence and the offender more odious to the rest of the pupils, and it prepares the way for the fourth step, which is to invite information from any source. If there is a healthful sentiment in the school, the needed information will now be given. Indeed, the matter will rarely go so far as this, certainly not after the plan has been tried and the pupils have learned the spirit of the teacher. Should, however, the pupils still hold out and refuse to tell, all who know the guilty person become par-

ticipators in the wrong, and may justly be held accountable. In the mean time the teacher has not been idle, but through unmistakable signs, which the experienced teacher will know, he will arrive at a correct judgment as to who is guilty.

This method of procedure will not encourage tattling, but will teach children that there are times in school life, as in courts of justice, when to give testimony is not mean or debasing, but an exercise of a high moral duty. And this lesson ought to be taught to the pupils of our elementary and high schools. A false and extreme notion of the evil of "telling on" one another has been fostered among children, and this should be corrected by teaching them that there are times when it is their duty to give testimony.

6. Whispering. — The little child has been accustomed to talk freely with his mother and his playmates before entering school, and he is likely to continue that practice. Many teachers unwisely attempt to eliminate whispering entirely; and by rewards and punishments, by a system of individual reporting at the close of the day, and by other devices, they seek to prevent any whispering. Now, too much whispering is certainly a grievous evil, which interferes in the maintenance of the two essentials of good discipline already pointed out, namely, the protection of the individual and the general order of the school. Whispering should not be regarded as an evil *per se*, like stealing, lying, cheating, etc., and the pupils should be shown the distinction, — it is not a sin. They should be instructed that any restriction of this practice is owing to the fact that many persons are at work in the same room, and in order to secure good results quiet must be maintained.

Having established this distinction, I should seek once more to put the whole matter on a business basis. A gang of men are digging a ditch, and William wants to borrow a pick from John. Must he seek the boss and secure permission to ask John for the pick? Such a course would be ridiculous; and yet for a pupil to interrupt the teacher, whose attention is directed to the class he is teaching, to get permission to borrow a pencil from another pupil, is not less ridiculous. Now, if William and John stop work to discuss politics, or a baseball game, or even waste time in arguing how their work should be done, the foreman would be justified in calling them to order. So if pupils abuse the right to communicate by long conversations, even though it be about lessons, or if they make too much noise, it becomes disorder which must be checked. Children should be trained freely to go about the room, quietly asking others for what they need, and then to return to their own work without interrupting or disturbing the teacher or the other pupils. If they are interested in their work, if they have plenty to do, if they have been taught to keep employed, and if there is naturalness in the attitude of the children towards school life, whispering can be allowed, and good rather than evil will follow.

7. **Lying.** — This is a most serious offence, — a sin against God, — and great pains should be taken to impress its enormity upon the minds and consciences of the children. Temptation to lie should not be put in the way of children, and they should be taught that whenever they are guilty of wrong-doing the punishment will be lighter if the truth is told. Fear of punishment is usually the cause of lying. Some children through their home environment

have been taught to lie, and consequently they are devoid of a proper sense of the seriousness of the evil. School children easily become addicted to falsehood in connection with their school-work unless great care is exercised to prevent the fault. They must be taught that concealment may be as truly a lie as an open statement, and that "a lie that is half the truth is ever the worst of lies." It should be explained that there is no such thing as a "white lie," that all lying is black, and evil, and wicked.

I knew a teacher to pass by without reproof a detected lie because the daily program called for arithmetic! There is such a thing as paying tithes "of mint, anise, and cummin," and omitting "the weightier matters of the law." Of course, the daily program is a guide for the work of each day, and it should not be set aside for trivial causes; but when a great evil has been committed, it is the duty of the teacher to deal with the matter at once, for education is worse than evil if it is not established in moral principles. It need not be added that the most effective agency for teaching truthfulness is the absolute fidelity to truth both in word and act on the part of the teacher.

8. Cheating. — Closely allied to lying, is cheating, and children should be taught that cheating is merely another form of lying. Pupils cheat by handing in exercises borrowed from others, as their own, and by securing unlawful help in tests and examinations, and in their regular recitations. Here again they must be shown how dishonorable such practices are. Cheating must be made so odious that the class itself will frown upon those who attempt it.

A class of young men in a Southern university were

taking an examination. They had been placed entirely upon their honor, the professor having given them the questions and left the room. An alumnus of the institution dropped in to witness the work, and while sitting there came to the conclusion that a certain young man was cheating. He was copying the work of another student who sat near him. The visitor communicated his suspicion to a member of the class, who upon watching the proceeding also became convinced that it was a case of cheating. When the professor came in at the close of the examination to get the papers, a committee of students asked him for the two sets of papers involved. After comparing them, and finding unmistakable evidences of guilt, they at once called a mass-meeting of the students, and placed the facts before them. The young man was cited before the student-body, charged with cheating, and ordered to leave town before six o'clock that day, which he dared not refuse to do. The faculty had no part whatever in the proceeding. Now, this showed a high sense of honor among the students, and cheating would naturally be very rare in that institution.

Every school should aim to reach this high ideal, thus making cheating unpopular, so that those who practise it shall be made to feel the displeasure of their schoolmates, rather than to think that they have done a smart thing in successfully deceiving their teacher.

9. Stealing. — Like lying and cheating, stealing is a sin, and must be treated as such. Children should be taught that to take what does not belong to them, even if it has no more value than a pin, is stealing. A little girl four years old was playing in front of her home, while her mother sat upon the veranda. The child picked up some pieces of

cracked stone and put them in her basket to play with. When her mother discovered the stones, she said to her little daughter, "Where did you get those stones?" "Over there, from Mrs. B.'s sidewalk," was the reply. "Take them back at once, and go to Mrs. B. and apologize for taking what does not belong to you," said the mother. It was a very small matter, when one considers the intrinsic value of the property, but not a small matter as a lesson to the child. Children have no conception of values, and the mother acted wisely in requiring her little girl to return what she had taken and what did not belong to her. A German father was walking with his two young daughters through a neighbor's orchard on the way to his own fruit-trees. He observed one of his daughters help herself to a plum that was lying under the neighbor's tree. After reprimanding her for what she had done, he went to his own trees, took two plums, and sent his child to put them in the place from which she had taken the first plum. A small matter, one might hastily say; a large matter when one thinks of the lesson taught. And in this very particular, that of stealing fruit, it is a lesson that American children should learn. In Professor Stoy's school-grounds at Jena there was a number of fruit-trees. One day as I passed into the school, I saw some beautiful, ripe pippins lying under the trees, which none of the boys touched. It was, to me, such a remarkable circumstance, that I mentioned it to the principal. He looked at me in astonishment and said, "Why, how can they take those apples? They do not belong to them!" Our children ought to learn the meaning of *mine and thine*, even in small things.

A few children come from homes where the wrong of stealing is not recognized; indeed, some are even taught

to steal. Hence it will be necessary to teach them first principles. Let no temptation be thrown in their way; lunch-baskets should be placed where stealing is impossible. Children do not always steal lunches because they are hungry, but often because they want to try the dainty things that some other child has brought. Even if hunger impels, stealing lunches cannot be condoned; the child who suffers loss of his dinner also has rights that must be protected. By frequent talks, by picturing the great evil of stealing, by punishing those who are guilty, the enormity of this sin must be brought home to the consciences of the children.

10. **Impudence.** — This evil shows itself both in manner and in word. Impudence in manner may be just as real and just as offensive as the saucy word, but to describe it to parents or to the trustees is hard. Making faces, sticking out the tongue, insolent leering, shrugging the shoulders, are as truly impudent as any word that might be spoken. Neither form of impudence should be tolerated by the teacher, but prompt and vigorous treatment should follow, both for the child's sake and for the sake of the discipline of the school. The teacher that allows impudence from his pupils will soon lose their respect, and his control of the school will be irretrievably lost. Nothing will sooner bring him into contempt before both the children and the community. Therefore, energetic and summary punishment must follow any attempt on the part of the pupil to be impudent.

11. **Rebellion.** — When a child openly defies the teacher, when he rebels against authority, when he refuses to obey,

he must be summarily dealt with and without hesitation. This is no time for the teacher to show weakness, nor is there need of his doing so. The law of the State clothes him with ample authority, and the community must sustain him in its fullest exercise. If a pupil cannot be subdued, he must be removed, even if outside help must be summoned. No school-work can be done until the rebellious pupils are brought into complete submission or removed from the school. In a school on the seacoast a rough young fellow who spent his summers at sea entered school for two or three winter months. He seemed to think from the outset that there was no force in the school sufficient to command his obedience, and therefore he set at defiance all regulations, and utterly ignored the principal's directions. He was suspended from school, and his case referred to the school board. The next morning he was early at school, without having seen the school authorities and without permission from any one. "What are you doing here?" asked the principal. "I am coming to school; this is a free school," was his reply. "You cannot remain here until you bring a written permit from the president of the board," firmly said the teacher. The youth rapped his knuckles on the desk, and said, "This is my seat, and I propose to occupy it." The bell rang, and he took his place in the line in the hall with the rest of the pupils preparatory to marching in. The principal stepped between him and the door, and said, "You cannot go into this room. Now, I will give you a final warning. You have already made yourself liable to a twenty-five-dollar fine, or imprisonment, or both, according to the law of the State, for disobedience and rebellion. If you do not leave at once without further disturbance I shall take

out a warrant for your arrest, and prosecute you to the full extent of the law." The young man wisely took the warning, withdrew at once, and gave no further trouble.

The law in all the States fully sustains the teacher in maintaining order. Parents and school boards will uphold the teacher in prompt and radical measures in cases of rebellion, for all recognize that there can be no success with the school unless the authority of the teacher is upheld. Cases of rebellion are much more rare than in former times when brutal punishments aroused resistance, when teachers were ignorant and unskilled in the management of schools, and when public sentiment sustained the pupils in acts of insubordination and rowdyism.

CHAPTER X.

SCHOOL VIRTUES.

THE principal school virtues are regularity, punctuality, neatness, silence, accuracy, industry, obedience, truthfulness, fidelity to duty, honesty, and politeness. Having discussed the negatives of some of these virtues, they may be passed by with mere mention. When we have cured irregularity, tardiness, dishonesty, lying, etc., we shall have the virtues that are the antitheses of these vices. Emphasis, however, may be laid upon the positive side of some of these, in order to add to the clearness of the subject.

1. **Neatness.** — Great care should be taken to train children to habits of neatness. We have seen how this is done with regard to dress, written exercises, etc. The care of the seat, of text-books, and of school property calls for vigilance and frequent reminders on the part of the teacher. Every exercise placed on the blackboard or written upon paper must be an example of neatness. One of the chief advantages of school-work prepared for public exhibition is that it teaches the pupils neatness, for slovenly papers will necessarily be rejected. For this reason alone such exhibits are worth all the time and trouble they cost. Thus, exhibits to be placed about the schoolroom, to be sent to teachers' gatherings, to be prepared for State and national expositions, should be encouraged.

There is a universal practice in German schools of requiring most of the written work done by pupils to be written in ink, in note-books prepared for that purpose. This practice begins in the second or third year, as soon as the children can write. Thus, in the common schools one will find a set of note-books for arithmetic, another for geography, for history, for spelling, for language-work, for botany, and so on for each subject pursued. The child forms the habit of neatly entering his work on the first trial, for it cannot easily be erased. These note-books are remarkable for their neatness and accuracy. They also show the visitor as well as the teacher exactly what progress is being made. If an inspector visits the school, he always wants to see these exercise-books, and they afford an excellent criterion by which he may judge the efficiency of the work done. It takes the pupil rather more time at first, but the principle acted upon is, "Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well." I know of no better means than this of cultivating the habit of neatness in school children.

2. **Accuracy.** — Much the same plan employed in teaching neatness can be used in teaching accuracy. The child must learn to put his work down correctly the first time, or he will be required to do it over again. While rapidity is desirable, it must not be sought at the expense of accuracy or neatness. Not only the written work, but also the statements in oral recitation, must be accurate. Looseness of statement is not very far removed from lying. It also is detrimental to logical thinking. Rosenkranz says: "The fostering of the sense of truth, from the earliest years up, is the surest way of leading the pupil to gain

the power of thinking." Hence in training the pupil to accuracy in all forms of school-work, the habit of truthfulness as well as that of logical thinking is being established. Perhaps mathematics, which is an exact science, is the best means of illustrating the value of accuracy. Thus, a mistake of one figure three or four places removed from the unit's place would mean a difference of thousands or tens of thousands. An illustration of this kind would be powerful in convincing the child who thinks that a mistake of but one figure in his example should not count for much. Other illustrations may be given from actual life, such as the bank cashier's duty accurately to balance his cash account even to the cent, or the accountant's in balancing his books.

3. **Silence.** — It is not necessary to be able to hear a pin drop in the school at any time during the day, but there are times when absolute silence should be maintained. During the morning exercises, whenever the teacher or a visitor is speaking, whenever it is called for, pupils must remain absolutely silent. This is an important lesson for them to learn, and it is not repression by any means. So much has been said in recent years in criticism of the old-time school, which required the children to sit erect, toe the mark, fold the hands, keep still, that the modern school often goes to the other extreme and requires no exact discipline. As a result of this, children at church or at public gatherings often disturb everybody in their neighborhood by their restlessness and their inability to keep quiet even for a short time. There are two lessons that children need to learn : first, to respect the rights of others, and to know that their own wishes and whims are

not supreme; and second, to understand that there are times when they must be silent. Both of these lessons should be taught in the school; and the second can be taught by requiring at certain times, whenever demanded by the teacher, absolute and respectful silence.

When silence is demanded, the pupils must sit erect with nothing in their hands, in the attitude of quiet attention. This may not be required for a long time with little children, but so long as it is required, it should be perfect. A very important lesson in life will thus be inculcated. It may be necessary with little children to require the hands to be folded to prevent their getting into mischief. But the arms should never be folded behind the back, as it throws the body into an unhealthful, unnatural, and uncomfortable position. The hands may be clasped in front, but even this should be avoided if possible. A natural and easy position should be sought, and freedom of the hands allowed until experience proves the necessity of folding them.

The teacher should never rap loudly on the desk, or tap the bell violently, or shout, in order to secure silence. I once knew a teacher who would bring a heavy ruler down upon the desk with a crash that would at first startle his pupils. He created more noise and disorder than the pupils did, and they soon paid but little attention to him. Another teacher would pound her bell with such vigor, sometimes with anger, that, as a result, she needed a new one every few weeks. These methods only aggravate the evil and cause confusion. A quiet tap of the pencil, a slight touch of the bell, an incisive but not loud word, will accomplish the purpose and bring the room to quiet far more readily than will violent demonstrations. The teacher's manner

does much to secure silence. When silence is called for, it should be promptly attained, and it should be absolute for the time required. It will be found that where children are trained to proper habits of silence, it will prove a most valuable aid to the general order in the school; and such training will also have a salutary effect upon the children in their conduct in the society of others outside of the school.

4. **Industry.** — The healthy child is naturally active. If his activities are not properly employed, he is sure to get into mischief. Hence the importance of training him to be industrious in the right direction. From the beginning of school life, the child should be taught to employ himself. Idleness must be treated as an evil that is not to be tolerated. So long as the pupil is interested, there will be no trouble about keeping him employed; hence the teacher must keep him interested in his work. But even this interest must be directed, or there will be waste of time and misuse of energy.

First of all, the pupil must perform his required tasks. He must be taught to do these, even though they are not his choice, before he is allowed to take up those more to his taste. Here is an excellent opportunity to train the child in doing his duty. What he ought to do must be done rather than what he likes. There are always some bright children in the school, who are able to accomplish their allotted tasks much quicker than others, and it is these who are likely to get into mischief. The teacher should have plenty of reserve work for these children which they should be allowed to do when their regular work is done, and which they can perform unaided. Such

devices as the following can be employed: drawing, paper-cutting, using splints, dissected maps, for little children; and reading from encyclopædias and reference-books concerning men, inventions, events, etc., for older children. A list of interesting topics might be kept in a box or on a bulletin-board, which the pupils should be allowed to investigate whenever they have leisure. Houses that sell school supplies have plenty of devices for busy-work, and the teacher can easily construct others to meet special needs. There could be a box each for history, biography, problems, literature, science, current events, etc. Questions might be written on small cards, which the pupils should be allowed to draw out, and to which they should find the answers. Such interest may be aroused in this work that the teacher possibly will be obliged to limit it to prevent the pupils from neglecting their regular school-tasks.

The versatile teacher will find an abundance of material with which to prevent idleness; and idleness, the pupils must be brought to know, is a vice not to be tolerated. This training will forestall mischief and prevent disorder. Better still, it will establish important habits of life. The man who has learned to employ himself is not likely to seek the saloon to while away his hours of idleness, for he has no such hours. To him the life of the vagrant or tramp can have no attractions.

5. **Truthfulness.** — Although I have discussed the negative side of this topic, its importance is so great that it seems wise also to consider the positive side. First of all, the child should be taught to be true to himself, that notwithstanding he may deceive others, he cannot get away

from himself. Children who would scorn to prevaricate outside of school will often act and speak untruths in connection with their school life. Somehow they think of the school as another life, where the conditions are different, where to deceive the teacher is smart, and where to cheat and escape detection are evidences of shrewdness. Parents themselves are often to be censured for these misdemeanors. They boast, in the presence of their children, of the tricks they themselves played when in school, and their children attempt not only to imitate their example, but to go just a little farther than their parents went. I have known children out of school to be the soul of honor, but in school to cheat, act falsehoods, deceive their teacher, and perform other immoral acts with a perfectly innocent air, and with but few conscientious scruples. It is needless to say that this showed that the school had sadly failed in its duty. A close investigation in a particular case proved that this evil condition was fostered by the practice of the teacher in charge, who winked at lying, assisted his pupils in cheating, and then perjured himself in his report to the Regents. Many children who were brought under his baneful influence acquired habits of falsehood which not only affected their school life, but which were not lost when they went out into the world, as their later history proved.

In the next place, the pupil should be taught to be true in act as well as in word. Many a person will passively assent to things in which he does not believe, and concerning which, were a positive act required, he would record himself quite differently. An evangelist was making an appeal to a Sunday-school. He asked all teachers who were desirous of the conversion of their scholars to stand.

All stood. "Now," said he, "all of you who are willing to go to perdition for the sake of the salvation of your scholars, remain standing." All remained standing. I do not suppose that a single teacher would have risen, would have performed an act, in response to this latter unscriptural and monstrous appeal; but all passively assented to it by remaining on their feet, much to their later chagrin. If mature persons will passively assent to a wrong thing, much more may we expect that children will do the same. Perhaps some who are more conscientious may think to save themselves from falsehood by a mental reservation. Emphasis should be laid upon the act that deceives as well as upon the spoken word, and children need definite instruction on this point.

Once more, children sometimes tell falsehoods, and satisfy their consciences by using some talismanic expression, such as "Rubber," "Over the left," etc., uttered, it may be, in an undertone, or by making some mysterious sign.

Children should be taught the wrong of such things, and they should be shown that no incantation can remove the character or wickedness of deception. There are persons whose sense of truth has become so blunted through careless speech, as well as by deliberate lying, that one is never sure they are telling the truth. Against such indifference our pupils must be carefully guarded; and the school is a most important agency for cultivating the virtue of sincere, open, active, and passive truthfulness.

6. Regard for Duty. — In our eagerness to make tasks light and school life happy, there is danger that we may fail to acquaint children with the more serious realities of life. The methods employed should be the very best, —

those that take into account the development of the child on the one hand, and the natural and correct treatment of the subject on the other. But, as we have seen elsewhere, no method can be devised that liberates the pupil from self-exertion, that frees him from work. In and through this self-exertion there is abundant opportunity to train the child to do his duty. There are some things in life that, however unpleasant they may be, must be done because duty demands it. All through life men are obliged to face irksome tasks, and therefore the child must be trained not to shirk duty. Those who have never been taught to fulfil distasteful duties are ill prepared to cope with life's problems. The parent or the teacher who shields the child from work that is within his strength, or stands between him and the difficulties that he ought to overcome, is not performing for him a friendly service, but a great wrong instead. The lesson of duty to others and to himself should early be inculcated in the life and character of the child, so that he may form the habit and accept the principle of doing right because it is right and because he wants to do right.

7. **Politeness.** — Politeness is a virtue not only of the home and society, but also of the school. If, as Matthew Arnold says, "Conduct is three-fourths of life," and if true politeness is an external evidence of conduct, a very important duty is committed to the school to cultivate this virtue. Surely every teacher has at heart the future well-being of his pupils, and if politeness is so important to success in life, is it not worthy of more attention in the schools than it gets?

Real politeness is unselfishness. Thus, if a person yield his seat to another, stand aside to let some one else go

before him, pick up an object that somebody has dropped, go out of his way to show some other person a favor, he performs an unselfish, a polite act. The selfish thing would be to keep the seat, go first, let some one else pick up the object. Every act of genuine politeness is an act of unselfishness. Hence the teaching of politeness is the teaching of a cardinal virtue.

Again, Rosenkranz says: "Politeness is the virtue of civilization." According to this definition a man is civilized just in proportion to his practice of the recognized forms of behavior in society. Politeness is an evidence not only of good breeding, but also of intelligence, and of a compliance with the requirements of civilized life. Emerson says: "Give a boy address and accomplishments, and you give him the mastery of palaces and fortune wherever he goes; he has not the trouble of owning or earning them; they solicit him to enter and possess."

It rests upon the school, then, to give attention to this essential of proper education, far more attention than it has been giving. This leads me to offer the following suggestions in teaching this virtue:

1. *Inculcate the spirit of politeness.* — This spirit has already been defined as unselfishness. If politeness is a mere form, it is superficial, and does not reach the moral end sought. The act must not be performed because the eye of the teacher is upon the child, or for the sake of reward, or to win approval. Thus, when the teacher says, "I want you always to lift your hat when you meet me. It is polite to do so," he is not inculcating the spirit of politeness. The children associate the act with the teacher's authority, and consider it a school requirement. Only when they have learned to lift the hat or perform the po-

lite act to any and every person to whom it is due have they caught the spirit of politeness. I saw a young girl in a crowded car arise and offer her seat to a feeble old gentleman, a stranger to her. "Here, sir, please take my seat," she said. "Oh, no, daughter," said the old man, "keep your seat; I can stand." The girl insisted until he took the seat. Now, that young girl possessed the spirit of true politeness. A number of boys from twelve to fifteen years of age, together with three of their teachers, were standing on a street corner one day after school waiting for a car. When the car stopped, every boy sprang aboard ahead of the ladies, took possession of the vacant seats, and let the teachers stand. Here was neither the spirit nor the form of politeness. And yet these boys came from good homes and were very polite to their teachers *in the schoolroom.* But they were ill-bred, because their knowledge and their practice of politeness had not reached deep enough to make them thoughtful and unselfish. If one possess the real spirit of politeness, it will not be like a garb that can be put on or off as occasion may offer, but it will be a part of one's life, manifesting itself at all times and to all persons.

2. *Teach the forms of politeness.* — There are certain established forms of politeness which one cannot ignore. No one may be a law unto himself. Whatever is the accepted usage should be received and followed. This may vary in minor details in different countries, but he who is possessed of the spirit of politeness, and is observant as to the forms of etiquette which people of culture practise, will have no trouble in adjusting himself to any conditions. There is a sense in which the maxim, "While in Rome one must do as the Romans do," can be approved. In visiting

a foreign country persons will save themselves embarrassment and even humiliation by observing this rule.

To portray just what should be taught in our schools is rather difficult. Details must be sought for in books on etiquette. A few commonplace matters may be mentioned.

a. How to give and receive an introduction. — Unless children are instructed in these forms they are apt to be boorish, and if they are at all sensitive, they will suffer mortification. Education here can be acquired only by practising the aphorism of Comenius, "We learn to do by doing." I have seen teachers in the kindergarten place a child in front of his schoolmates, and direct another to bring forward other children and go through the form of an introduction. They were taught to do this gracefully, and I thought it was one of the most valuable exercises I ever saw in school. Many parents wisely attend to this in the home, and it saves their children from future embarrassment. There is nothing more beautiful than to see a young child when introduced step forward, offer the hand, and with a graceful bow say, "How do you do?" There is nothing, on the other hand, more distressing than to observe a child when introduced hang his head and act sheepish. The disposition of some children to do these things often leads to increased bashfulness; their conduct in this matter is usually due to ignorance of what is the right thing to do. If the child is bashful, there is no better means of overcoming this weakness than by training him in the forms of introduction.

Another feature of this question should be cultivated among American people, and that is, how to introduce one's self. It sometimes occurs that there is no intermediary to pass the name of the one to the other. Not long

ago I went into a schoolroom in a large school of one of our great cities. Stepping up to the gentleman in charge of the room, I said, "My name is S." "How do you do, Mr. S.?" was the greeting, with no indication that I was entitled to know his name in response to my introduction. I have observed in foreign countries that if two persons are brought into close contact in a railway compartment, at table, or on an excursion, it will not be long before one will say, "My name is B," and the other will respond at once, "My name is A." This mutual introduction breaks down barriers and opens the way for pleasant intercourse and good-fellowship. Even ladies are not excluded from this etiquette, and it does not expose them to insult, or bring against them the charge of forwardness.

b. Table manners. — Discretion must be used in teaching table manners, else parents will interpret the criticism that their children bring home as aimed at themselves. In kindergartens where a lunch is served and where table furniture is provided, definite instruction can be given at the most favorable time of life. Attention can be called to the most common matters of table etiquette from time to time without awakening antagonism or causing any one to feel that personal criticism is intended. Confucius says, "Eat at your table as you would eat at the table of the king."

c. Lifting the hat. — Boys should be taught to observe the practice of well-bred men. Moreover, as shown elsewhere, they should be taught to uncover the head to others as well as to their teacher.

d. When to excuse one's self. — Children are not to be taught indiscriminately, "Always excuse yourself whenever you pass in front of a person." I once witnessed a

march in a schoolroom in which every child that passed me repeated the words, "Excuse me." There was no sense in this proceeding, and not one of the children gained the slightest idea thereby as to when he should excuse himself. They were discharging a duty which left them no alternative; it was necessary for them to march in front of me. Only when a person interferes with or discommodes another should he excuse himself.

e. When to give place to others. — In passing through doors, in street-cars, in crowded assemblages, there are abundant opportunities to show politeness, and these opportunities do not occur to men alone. By a simple "Thank you!" by moving up when people are standing and there is room for another, even by yielding her seat to one whose necessity is greater than hers, a woman has opportunity to show good breeding. And this is the politeness, practised by either sex, that is the highest form of unselfishness.

f. Respect for older persons. — At the sesqui-centennial at Princeton in 1896, the President of the United States stood on a platform in front of old Nassau Hall and reviewed the great line of alumni as they marched by. First came the class of '96 with its hundreds of shouting young fellows, then the class of '95, followed by the other classes in order down through the 90's, 80's, 70's, 60's, etc., the ranks growing thinner according to the age of the class. As the gray-haired, halting veteran representatives of the noble old college passed the stand, President Cleveland uncovered his head as a token of respect for old age, and remained uncovered in the chilly night-air until the last man had slowly filed by. It was a beautiful tribute of respect, and it was a lesson in

politeness that millions of American children might well learn.

A body of celebrated men were sitting about a table in a German city listening to an address from one of their number. The door opened, and an aged man came in. The speaker ceased at once, and every man rose to his feet and stood until the old gentleman had taken his seat. It was Alexander von Humboldt, and the tribute of respect was to the old man as well as to the great scientist. It is a universal practice in German schools for the whole body of pupils to rise upon the entrance of a visitor and remain standing until the visitor is seated. I know of no exercise that is productive of better results in teaching politeness than this. One school in this country, at least, follows the practice of receiving the formal introduction of a visitor on the platform by rising in a body. It is a most beautiful and impressive spectacle — one that never fails to awaken deepest pleasure in the person thus greeted. I believe that the general adoption of this practice would materially aid in bringing about the reforms for which I am pleading in this chapter.

Children should be taught to reverence old age without regard to station, dress, sex, or other circumstance. They should be taught this for their own sakes, as well as for the sake of those who begin to feel that they are in the way in the world. Well might American children learn from the ancient Jews, from the Spartans, the Persians, the Romans, and also from the Germans, to revere the hoary head, and to show respect to their seniors.

g. Respect for those in authority. — The fact that a man has been chosen to represent his community or his country in a political position, ought to win respect for

him. It is deplorable that newspapers, partisans, and citizens generally, so often speak in terms of disrespect concerning those that have been chosen to rule over them, usually because they belong to the opposite party. Persons who are unworthy of respect should never be named for office; and when a person has been elected, it is the duty of the people to recognize him as representing authority, and, therefore, as worthy of respect. It is unseemly in a great country like ours, that candidates for our highest offices, in a political campaign are held up to ridicule. It shows a lack of respect for the dignity of the office when a candidate is spoken of as "Bill," "Teddy," "Jim," or "Tom." These things are bad for children, who, through the disrespect shown to the persons representing authority, easily learn to have little respect for law and authority.

Besides these things that I have mentioned, there are many others that will occur to the teacher, such as the treatment of one's own family, of servants, of employees, etc. A book on etiquette will not only suggest topics, but will also furnish details of how to treat them.

Both the *spirit* and the *form* of politeness are essential, — the spirit, which is the essence of true politeness, being unselfishness; and the form, which embodies the conventionalities of society and of life. Training in both of these will materially aid the child in meeting the duties of life, and winning success.

The exercise of the virtue of politeness will aid in discipline, promote happiness, further good-fellowship, and increase the efficiency of the school itself. It is not only invaluable in one's intercourse with others, but it is a most important virtue in the ideal school. "Courtesy gives its owner passport round the globe."

CHAPTER XI.

SCHOOL MORALS.

THE school should stand for the highest morality, and parents should be able to feel that in committing their children to the charge of the school, no risks are run. The transition from the environment of the home to that of the school is very great. Surely the school, under charge of the kind of teacher we have demanded in Chapters I. and II., should not be less pure than the home. If there is indifference as to moral ideals; if there is looseness in practice, vulgarity in speech, indecency in act; if there is not a high moral tone, — it were better to close the school, no matter how efficient its work may be in other respects. The whole moral tone of a community can be uplifted by the purity of morals of the school; on the other hand, lack of high moral ideals in the school may debase a whole community.

Character of the Teacher. — All the moral influence of the school centres around the life and character of the teacher. The children learn to think as he thinks, to act as he acts. A young teacher's influence for temperance in a village was so great that every saloon was closed. It was not so much what he did outside of school, as his influence upon his pupils, who in turn led the irparents to vote against license. Nor did he discuss the license question

in school; but his strong, moral life left no doubt in the pupils' minds as to what his attitude upon the liquor question must be, and his pupils believed as he did. The gaining of such a powerful influence over the lives of his pupils by a teacher so that they are ready unquestioningly to follow him, brings a proportionate responsibility, but a blessed opportunity to do good when one's own life is pure is also presented. The teacher with lofty ideals which he carries out in the school and in the community, is the most potent factor in fixing the high ideals of society. It was the character of Arnold of Rugby, rather than his methods of instruction, that shaped the lives of his boys and left a permanent moral impress upon the leaders of England which will be an influence for good for many generations. No effective moral instruction can be given in the school unless the teacher is wholly sound in his moral life.

Importance of Moral Instruction. — Between the years 1875 and 1895 the attendance in the schools of England increased from 1,500,000 to nearly 6,000,000 pupils. During the same time the number of arrests per annum of juveniles decreased from 14,000 to 5,000. The only discernible cause of this decrease is the influence of the schools, a most remarkable commentary on the moral effect of keeping children at school. France has recently adopted a regular course of moral instruction in all her schools as the most potent means of checking immorality in the nation. It is not to be gathered from this that we advocate the introduction of moral training as a regular part of the curriculum, or that we would give it a fixed place in the daily program. The danger of this is that the pupils will regard themselves as being "preached at," and will fortify

themselves against the teaching, thereby destroying the effect intended. But nevertheless the teacher must have a plan of teaching morals that will touch every phase of life and embrace all of the important ethical questions. Great wisdom will be needed in formulating such a scheme.

If the teacher appreciates that all teaching is vain and worse than vain if it is not based on ethical foundations, if he recognizes that character-building is the great aim of education, if he possesses a keen sense of the importance of the subject, he will not be at a loss for abundant material for lessons in morals. In every lesson taught, in all of the relations of the pupils to each other and to him, in discipline, in the very atmosphere of the school, the teacher will find opportunities for moral instruction. While there may be no formulated course of study, in the mind of the teacher and in his plan, the teaching of morals will be systematic and wholesome. This teaching is the underlying purpose of the school, and those who support it and send their children to it have a right to expect that this purpose shall be fulfilled.

How to Teach Morals. — If the need of moral instruction is recognized, the next question is, What shall be the plan of carrying it out? I submit the following suggestions:

1. *Utilize every school interest for moral ends.* — In the chapters on school evils and school virtues I have tried to bring the final treatment of each topic discussed to a moral basis. Thus, in overcoming tardiness and irregularity, bring the child to see that he is infringing upon the rights of others; in controlling whispering, show him that the individual or the school may not be disturbed; in inculcating politeness, selfishness is checked. The child is to be

punctual, regular, honest, truthful, obedient, faithful to duty, because it is right to be so, and not for the sake of reward. Lessons are to be learned, the rights of others respected, and duty is to be performed, from a sense of moral obligation. Accuracy of work, honesty in doing tasks, generosity towards those that are less favored, fairness in school sports, charity for the weakness of others, are virtues that may be constantly utilized in school life, and made to have a most stimulating moral influence. There is not a phase of school life, either in the schoolroom or on the playground, that may not be employed for moral ends. The wise and conscientious teacher will not fail to make use of this material, without, however, advertising his purpose to his pupils. Little need be said about moral instruction, but the teacher will impart it by word and act, by the silent and yet ceaseless vigilance of one who fully comprehends its need, and who has a proper conception of the meaning of education.

2. *Do not neglect the physical side of the child's life.* — Physical peculiarities often indicate a person's moral attributes. The slouchy gait of the tramp furnishes more than a hint as to his moral character. A well-set-up body commands respect. It also makes self-respect possible, and without self-respect there is no such thing as moral character. There is certainly a close relation between the physical and the moral. I once saw, in the city of Berlin, a squad of raw recruits just being mustered into the army. They came from the farm, the workshop, the bench; and their stooping shoulders, crooked legs, awkward carriage, indicated that their early life had been one of hard toil. The expression of their faces and their uncouth manner gave evidence of dulness, and one might almost say

indifference to all of life's interests. A few months later I saw the same young men under drill at Potsdam. They had been through the rigid discipline of the soldier's life during these months, and it was marvellous to note the change in their physical appearance. The bent shoulders and crooked legs had been straightened, the slouchy gait had been changed into the firm movement and easy carriage of one who has learned to bring the body under control of the will, all slovenliness of manner had disappeared. Their whole appearance was that of self-respecting, alert, intelligent men, and I am sure that there was no deception in this appearance. Many a young man enters the German army with bad physical and moral habits which too often are acquired in early manhood in village or city life.

Even as the two or three years of service in the army corrects the physical defects, it also improves the morals. Thus this service becomes not only a splendid school in preparing men for the defence of their country, but it also corrects evil habits earlier acquired, and returns young men to civil life strong and sound in body, improved in morals, and established in habits. The army must certainly be reckoned as one of the agencies in the education of the German people, and it is largely through physical training that its good results are obtained, whichever side of life — civil or military — may be considered.

If such results can be obtained with young men who have nearly reached their majority, how much greater results can be secured with the plastic bodies and impressionable minds of the children of our schools! We say that the end of education is good character, and neglect a very natural and important means of securing that end,

namely, the proper development of the body. Every day, and every hour of the day, the teacher meets opportunities to give this training. It is not necessary to go to the gymnasium to do this, or to set apart a time for physical culture, — though this work should not be omitted, — but opportunity will be constantly offered. Require pupils to stand firm on both feet when they recite, to carry their bodies erect when they march, to abstain from lounging in their seats, to rise and to sit gracefully, and to walk with a natural and easy gait; — in a word, they must be taught physical self-control, and in learning this they will also learn the lesson of moral self-control.

3. *Keep the children employed.* — I have shown elsewhere (p. 126) the importance of industry as a virtue and as a means of maintaining good order. This question has also a moral side. The man who does not know how to employ himself is likely to seek the saloon and the place of questionable amusement during his leisure hours. Time hangs heavily on his hands, and, not knowing what to do with himself, he becomes an easy prey to vicious influences, and is liable to acquire bad habits. Saloon-keepers realize this, and therefore they make their resorts attractive with music, games, and bright surroundings. It is not merely the craving for drink that draws men to these places, it is the need of companionship, the desire to be entertained, the filling of the void in their own lives caused by their inability to employ their spare time. Men do not often leave their work during the day to visit these resorts, hence they are not so dangerous during working-hours. It is, then, a great moral problem to teach children what to do with their unoccupied hours, to teach them how to employ themselves.

By teaching children the lesson of self-employment, the school thus fortifies them against intemperance and its attendant evils. I have said elsewhere that children must be impressed with the thought that idleness is a vice, and therefore, by preventing this vice, morality is inculcated.

It is the duty of the school to shape the moral as well as the intellectual life of the nation. I think it important, therefore, to teach honesty towards the public service. There is no reason why a man, working for the State or the city, should not give as faithful and as honest service as if he were working for an individual. It will scarcely be claimed that such service is generally rendered. Observe the employees of a municipality, from the street-sweepers up, and it will be seen that few expect to give the same honest service that they give to private employers for the same pay. And official heads of departments do not expect the same faithfulness from men working under them for the city that they demand of those employed by them in private enterprise. A false and immoral standard has been fostered which shows itself among our citizens from the commonest laborer to the highest city official, and which has become, in many cities of our land, a practical carrying out of the aphorism, "To the victors belong the spoils." Hence the disgraceful misrule that so often characterizes our municipal governments.

If this evil is ever corrected, it will be because the people as a whole want it corrected, and the public school must form a sentiment among those who are to be the men and women of the future that will make such things impossible. The children must be taught that when they engage their services in any capacity, whether in the

kitchen as cook, in the field or the street as laborer, in private or in public capacity, for the individual or for a corporation, whether in the most menial employment, or as leader of the greatest enterprises, they owe the best they can give. And this is a lesson sadly needed in every branch of industry and life in our country.

When this lesson is learned and put into practice, not only will municipal government be purified, but also the great disturbances between capital and labor will cease. The moral worth of employment will not be appreciated until this lesson is learned.

4. *Make use of daily incidents.* — Not a day passes in which there are not incidents of school life that may be employed to teach moral lessons. It may be something that has taken place on the playground. Some boys were snowballing at recess, and one of them accidentally broke a window in a neighboring shop. He went at once to the shop and said to the proprietor, "I've broken your window, sir, and want to pay for it." "You broke it?" said the man. "Why didn't you run? That's the way the boys generally do." "That is not the way I do," replied the boy. "I have damaged your window, and it is my duty to pay for it." "Well," said the shopkeeper, "this is the first time a boy ever came and owned up, and I've a notion not to let you pay anything." The boy insisted that he ought to pay for the damage resulting from the accident. Finally the man said to him: "The boys have broken so many window-lights for me that it has cost a considerable sum to repair damages. Now I will have this one put in with some other broken windows, and let you share the expense. I think you will be better satisfied with this than if I were to bear all the expense." The

boy assented to this, borrowed the money to pay his part, and saved from his weekly allowance until his debt was discharged. The relation of such an incident as this cannot fail to make boys desire to be manly and honest. It also teaches them justice and uprightness. The boy who had the courage and manliness to accept the full responsibility of his carelessness, was the better for doing so, and his example must have had an excellent effect upon the school. The lesson will have a deeper effect if it is drawn from an incident that has actually taken place in the pupils' own school life and has occurred in the experience of one of their own number.

Then in the schoolroom incidents frequently occur that may be used. Two boys were to read essays in a contest for a prize. The hour arrived, parents and friends were assembled, and one of the boys was called upon to step forward to the platform and deliver his production. He arose, searched his pockets for his essay; it was not to be found anywhere, and he was obliged to tell his teacher that it was lost and that he could not compete for the prize. The teacher, angry at such carelessness, turned to the other boy and said, "Thomas, the prize is yours; you have merely to go through the form of presenting your essay." Thomas arose and walked to the platform, faced the audience, and tore his manuscript into bits. "What does this mean?" asked the astonished teacher. "It means that I will not profit by the misfortune of my competitor," said the boy. The teacher looked at him a moment, and then publicly commended his generous act. Such an occasion afforded an unusual opportunity for a moral lesson, and it needed scarcely a word to bring it home to the pupils.

Not only incidents that actually occur in the schoolroom,

but also those that appear in the class-work, and in the lessons themselves, will frequently suggest moral truths that can be applied to individual life. Events in the community or in the country at large can also be used. It must not be thought a loss of time if the teacher occasionally omits the regular lesson of the program to impress a moral truth upon the minds of his pupils. Indeed, there are times when to stick to the program and not turn aside to utilize just the right moment for moral teaching would be almost a crime. There are teachers who are such sticklers for order and system, that they will not omit the routine spelling-lesson to take time to impress upon the children the wickedness of a lie.

It may be well in this connection to suggest that each teacher should have a scrap-book in which incidents and stories teaching morals are entered. This material should be classified so that it can be drawn upon in the future when lessons in morals are desired. Thus, a few pages could be devoted to generosity, a few to unselfishness, to bravery, to truthfulness, to honesty, etc. This scrap-book in time will become very valuable, for it will contain, not only the clippings and stories collected from papers, magazines, and books, but also it will be the preserved record of personal incidents in the school and in the experiences of life. Thus the teacher will soon acquire a splendid fund of material upon which he can draw in carrying out a plan of systematic moral instruction. He will utilize daily incidents for immediate use, but will also preserve them for future classes.

5. *Make the environment of a character to teach morals.* — Beautiful and pleasant surroundings have a decided effect upon moral character. Many children come from

homes where there is little that is pleasing, hence the greater necessity that the school should be attractive. It is made attractive by cleanliness, by the neat and variegated dress of the children, by being cheerfully lighted, and by suitable pictures on the walls. The dark, uniform garb of children in the schools of France is doubtless economical, but its sombreness makes it sadly unattractive. It must therefore lack the moral effect which the beautiful inspires. Where the majority of the children in a class-room are well dressed, the slovenly are stimulated to become neat. Children are influenced by other children; and if the sentiment of the class is for pretty dress, there are but few children that will not be able to bring their parents to make them also look tidy and dress prettily. When a sentiment for tidiness has been secured, the pupils will gain in self-respect, which is the foundation of good morals.

Carefully selected pictures, even though but few in number, have a decided influence for good. I have a copy of Hoffmann's celebrated picture, "Christ Before the Doctors." One can never look at this picture without gaining nobler ideals, without being made better. No one can estimate the influence of a fine picture, and therefore the decoration of schoolrooms with standard works of art is educative in the best sense. It will have a salutary effect not only upon the children, but also upon future generations. The people of Italy and Germany have become musical through hearing music for hundreds of years. The teacher should not attempt to cover the walls at once with pictures for the sake of filling the space. It is better to secure one or two good pictures each year than to have many that are unsuitable in character. By giving entertainments, by interesting pupils and patrons, possibly by

taking collections, funds can be secured for this purpose. And the greater the interest that is awakened in the school and in the community, the more the pictures will be appreciated. While copies of standard works of art are desirable, no great expense need be involved. Excellent copies of the finest pictures can now be had at small cost.

The frames selected should be plain, so as not to collect dust and so as to be easily cleaned. Historical and classical pictures should be explained to the pupils, and very valuable lessons can be taught from them. It will be found that the presence of pictures will exert a decided moral influence upon the children. Works of art refine and ennoble, and the schoolroom that is decorated with them becomes a beautiful, attractive, and home-like place, in which the children take pride, and where they are inspired to higher and nobler ideals.

6. *Select moral lessons from history and literature.*—I once heard the story of Joseph and his brethren told to a class of six-year-old boys. It was in a public school in the city of Munich. A series of lessons from the life of this great leader had previously been given, and this particular lesson was that of Joseph revealing himself to his brethren, one of the most powerful and pathetic scenes recorded in history or literature. It was the moment when Joseph, having sent from the room all but his brethren, said: "I am Joseph, your brother, whom ye sold into Egypt. Now, therefore, be not grieved, nor angry with yourselves, that ye sold me hither; for God did send me before you to preserve life." The teacher briefly reviewed the whole history that led up to the event of the day's lesson. The embarrassment, the fear, the remorse of the brethren were vividly pictured and their sin pointed out. Then the gen-

erosity, the forgiveness, the filial affection of Joseph were dwelt upon. Joseph's reassurances to his kinsmen that no harm should come to them, and his excuses for their conduct as being the means under the providence of God of the salvation of the family of Jacob, were discussed. The teacher told the story with such simplicity and earnestness that all of the boys were deeply impressed. His treatment of the subject prepared his pupils for the reception of the most effective lessons in morals. It produced an impression upon the children such as is rarely witnessed. Is there any reason why this same story might not be used in the American schools as a means of moral instruction? There are other stories from the same source that offer most valuable material for the teaching of morals; indeed, there is no book that furnishes so many and such appropriate stories for moral lessons as the Bible.

Incidents from the life of Washington, Lincoln, Gladstone, Livingstone, Florence Nightingale, Frances E. Willard, and a host of others can be utilized, while history is rich in events that can be used in imparting moral lessons. Here, again, the value of the scrap-book is evident. Suitable material for use in the school could be collected and classified until the teacher has an abundance of material from which to select as occasion requires.

7. *Be watchful of the pupils at recess.*—When boys and girls mingle freely at recess the teacher should be alert to prevent any unseemliness. I think it well to let pupils of the two sexes play together within certain self-evident limitations. Boys become gentler and girls less prudish by associating with the opposite sex. Whenever possible, the teacher should be out of doors with the children, not to interfere with or to control their games, but to be one

among the children, enjoying perfect freedom with them. They must not feel that the teacher is on the playground to be a spy over their actions, but rather to gain the same relaxation from school duties that the children are seeking. Nevertheless, the presence of the teacher among the children will prevent wrong-doing, and will raise the moral tone of the children. Profanity, vulgarity, fighting, and other evils will be checked. Even when not out of doors at recess the teacher must be watchful as to what is going on. Just how far the teacher may go in his freedom of intercourse with his pupils depends upon his own personality. A young teacher made a practice of playing with his pupils at recess on terms of perfect equality. A member of his school board, who had formerly been captain of a whaling-vessel, said to him: "Maybe you can make this work in your school, but it wouldn't do on shipboard. There you would lose all control of your men." "We are not on shipboard," replied the young man; "I think we can make it work." It did work in this case. His freedom with his pupils at recess strengthened rather than weakened his discipline in the school. In the school he was the master; on the playground he was one of their number. Still, his presence exerted a strong moral influence at recess. Each teacher, however, must know his own strength and his own limitations in this matter.

The teacher must frequently examine the outhouses and see that they are kept in good order. Vulgar inscriptions must be removed at once, and perfect cleanliness insisted upon. A failure to attend to these things will be productive of most evil consequences, and will undo much of the good work that is done by other means of moral instruction.

8. *Teach the children to be helpful.* — A great blessing comes to one who is helpful to others. There is no better means than this of teaching the lesson of unselfishness. Boys are often won to good order and moral practice by being set to do something either for the teacher or for some one else. I once attended a religious service among boys from the slums of a city. To one boy was assigned the duty of passing the hymn-books to the people as they came in; another ushered the people to their seats; a third selected and announced the hymns. I noticed that the boys who appeared to be the ringleaders of the crowd were the ones selected to perform these various duties. Good order prevailed; indeed, these boys acted as though they were responsible for good order, and they would brook no disturbance. Probably the boys who received the most good from the meeting were those who were called upon to help. The wise teacher will make use of such means to assist in maintaining discipline, and it will be found to exercise a decided moral influence.

One of the blessings of a large family of children is that the older ones are called upon to assist in the care of the younger. There is an abundance of opportunity to do something for some one else that is lacking in the small family. The necessity of setting a good example, of assuming responsibility, of taking care of younger brothers and sisters, gives the older members of the family, at least, practice in right-living and right-doing. It is a good thing for a child that he be looked up to as a model of moral practice.

The turning-point in the school life of Tom Brown at Rugby, and perhaps of his whole life, came at the beginning of the second term, when little George Arthur, a

new boy, was placed under his charge. The story of his guardianship of the younger boy is the story of Tom's moral awakening and development. Probably nothing could have been done so effectually to lead Tom Brown to take a high moral stand as to give him charge of another boy to whom he was to be an example. Children should be taught that he who lives to himself alone never receives the largest blessings of life; that he is poor indeed. The sublimest lesson of the Divine Master's life was that of self-sacrifice. He gave Himself for others; and only as men learn this principle and follow His example, can they enter into moral and spiritual life.

Mrs. Evans summarizes the means of moral training most admirably as follows:

1. Systematic required instruction.
2. Personal influence of the teacher, with incidental teaching.
3. School discipline in general.
4. Public sentiment in and out of the school.

I have intimated that it does not seem best to place the teaching of morals on the same basis as arithmetic, geography, reading, etc.; that it should not have a place in the curriculum or in the fixed daily program. Nevertheless, the teacher should have a definite plan in his own mind, which he should carry out at different times and in a manner and with material suited to the age of different pupils. An excellent scheme has been formulated by Superintendent J. W. Carr of Anderson, Ind., and is printed in his Manual as a part of the course of study. Concerning this Mr. Carr writes me: "If you have time to read this course carefully, you will observe that comparatively little time is given to formal instruction in this subject. We depend

chiefly upon the influences of the teacher using the most opportune moment to impress the lessons desired. We endeavor to train the children to practise as many of the virtues mentioned in the outline as possible. I think the work has been reasonably satisfactory."

Through Superintendent Carr's courtesy, I present this valuable course in full in the Appendix. Though it may be impracticable to incorporate it in the required work of the pupils, it will certainly be a guide for the teacher which will enable him to deal with this important subject in a systematic and thorough manner.

CHAPTER XII.

CAUTIONS TO TEACHERS.[1]

THE normal school presents to its students many theories which later they will apply in their own schools. In its training-school it teaches them how to put theory into practice. Doubtless the young teacher is thus fortified against many errors, and he consequently will be saved from mistakes that otherwise would be made. But the training-school with its critic teachers and supervisors, its small classes, its abundance of material to work with, its ideal conditions as a model school, is a very different place from the public school where the young teacher is likely to get a position. In the latter case the responsibility, the discipline, the instruction, the success of the school rest upon the young beginner. This is true in a large sense even where there is a principal to give advice and assistance when needed. The principal must expect a certain amount of disciplinary power, independence, and resourcefulness from his assistants.

The teacher is tried by other standards now — not by the judgment of the critic teacher whose good opinion is so important to him, but by his success in maintaining discipline, by his power of interesting his pupils, by his ability to bring them forward in their work. No training-school experience, however ideal, can be quite the same as that of the actual school where the young graduate finds

[1] See also my "Foundations of Education, p. 21.

his life-work. This is not to be construed as a criticism of the training-school. The experience obtained there, even though affected by so many limitations, is a great help in the education of the teacher. It will doubtless save him from a great many mistakes, and may possibly be the final and most valuable feature of the normal school course in insuring success. Yet, with all the help that the training-school can give, and with all that the normal school can do, some of their graduates fail when it comes to the actual work of teaching. But not all those who graduate from theological seminaries turn out to be successful preachers; all who complete the courses of the medical schools do not become skilful physicians. The young teacher must work out his own pedagogical salvation in his own schoolroom. If he has the help of a thorough professional training, he is much more likely to succeed. The lessons learned in the professional school will aid him in avoiding many pitfalls, and the experiences of others will fortify him against many errors.

I have spoken of normal-trained teachers. It must not be forgotten that more than four-fifths of the teachers of this country have not had the advantages of the normal school, and therefore a large proportion of them need advice in the management of their charges. It is for the purpose of aiding young teachers of both of these classes, — namely, (1) those who have received training in a professional school and yet have had but little practice in teaching, and (2) those who have begun to teach without professional training, — that this book has been written. There are common errors from which these young teachers may be spared. Let us turn our attention to some of the gravest of these errors.

1. **Never Use Sarcasm.** — There are two reasons why sarcasm should not be used in the school: first, it is bad for the child; and second, it is bad for the teacher. Sarcasm is a cruel weapon at best, and young children should never be subjected to its blighting, poisonous sting. Children are by nature generous, frank, sincere. Let the teacher be the last one to make them bitter, suspicious, callous. As it is, they will soon enough encounter the sneers and suspicions of the evil-minded, and the innuendoes of the venomous. Let sweet and generous-spirited childhood be encouraged in its open-heartedness, and let the school never be guilty of supplanting this quality with the rancor and suspicion which the use of sarcasm generates. Life will have enough of bitterness without the teacher introducing it, and it will come all too soon without being fostered in the early years of school.

For his own sake the teacher cannot afford to use sarcasm. It reacts upon his own soul and life. Instead of writing upon the teacher's brow peace, joy, and good-will towards all men, it writes hatred, suspicion, envy, vindictiveness. "I love to look at that man's face; it is a benediction," said a friend to me as the late Dr. E. A. Sheldon of the Oswego Normal School approached us. Dr. Sheldon could never have made use of sarcasm. It would have reacted upon himself, and written malice and hatred upon his countenance, instead of benignity and kindliness. "Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh." Every teacher has to meet things that try his patience; but, in spite of this, there is no reason why the heart may not grow mellow with the years if it does not harbor bitterness. The person whose spirit is kindly and whose words are free from sarcasm will be

loved and cherished. Such a person will be welcome in the society of young and old because of the sunshine that he carries with him. Therefore for his own advantage, as well as for the sake of the children, let the teacher never indulge in the use of sarcasm.

2. **Avoid Threatening and Scolding.** — Many of the reasons for not using sarcasm apply equally well in the matter of scolding. It angers and imbitters the pupils, and reacts upon the teacher's own disposition. Children should be told plainly and yet kindly what is expected of them, and, if they deserve it, reprimanded. A reprimand does not need to be given in a spiteful or a censorious manner. It will carry greater weight if administered in a calm tone of voice. The wrong done should be plainly set forth and the reason for punishment explained. Reproof is far more likely to be effective if the spirit of the teacher is that of one who is grieved over the perpetration of a wrong rather than of one that is out of patience. If given in a quiet manner, and yet with firmness, putting the case fairly, it will have a tendency to cause the child to see the seriousness of his error and make him desire to amend. Scolding leads him to become indifferent, or, perhaps worse, excites him to stubbornness. The reflex influence of scolding upon the one who indulges in it is by no means the least serious of the evils occasioned.

A threat carries with it the promise of a penalty. "If you do that again, I shall send you home," threatens the teacher. Now, it may be necessary to suspend the child from school for repeated offences, warning having been given. But the warning need not be a threat. A good general always provides for a retreat. There may be cir-

cumstances connected with a child's act which would mitigate the punishment. Hence the teacher should provide a way of retreat without endangering his discipline. For that reason he should not definitely fix a punishment for a certain offence, should not threaten. Nevertheless, if the punishment is deserved, it should be just as sure as if it had been threatened.

There is a great difference between a warning and a threat. A warning calls attention to an evil, and points out what the ultimate consequences may be if it is persisted in; a threat carries with it a definite purpose to inflict a certain punishment for a given offence. The teacher must not hesitate to perform his duty, but it is better that he be unhampered by previous threats, which narrow his limitations as to the punishment to be inflicted. It is better to look at an offence from the standpoint of the present, with all of the circumstances that led to its commission before the teacher, rather than from the position of an anticipated wrong.

The viewpoint will be more accurate and more just, consequently there is less likelihood of mistakes. Better still, there is greater freedom to exercise the quality of mercy, and live up to a principle previously enunciated, namely, the least punishment that will effect the cure is the right punishment. Scolding and threatening should be avoided in the school, that justice may be tempered with mercy; furthermore, that the teacher may not acquire an acrimonious and bitter spirit.

3. **Keep Your Word:** — If pupils are to be taught truthfulness, the teacher must be an example in act and word. They must learn that every promise of the teacher will be

kept, and that they can absolutely rely upon what he says. "You would do what you promised even if the world came to an end," rather petulantly remarked a boy to his teacher who rigidly kept his word. But the boy respected this teacher because he found that the teacher's word could be relied upon. This quality made that teacher a most potent moral force in the community, not only among his pupils, but also among their parents. Nothing is so destructive to discipline as indifference on the part of the teacher to his own promises. "You will remain after school to-night," says the teacher to a pupil. The teacher forgets his command, and the pupil slips away unnoticed. An implied promise is contained in the command, and to ignore or forget it is to invite a repetition of the act, and bring the disciplinary requirements of the school into disrepute. If the teacher cannot rely upon his memory, he should make a note of his promises so that they will not be forgotten.

In all of his financial dealings the teacher should be the soul of honor. He knows exactly what his income is, and therefore he is aware of the amount he may spend. He also knows when he can pay, and his promises to pay must be promptly met. This ought to be said of every person, but I am addressing teachers whose example as well as teaching should be righteous and honest. The eyes of the whole community are upon him, and therefore his financial integrity should be beyond question. This view of a teacher's obligations is true, however small his salary may be. He must live within his means, and thus bring no reproach upon his profession.

4. Do Not be Hasty in Condemning a Child. — In most cases where a serious evil has been committed, it is better

to defer action for a day or two. This will prevent a decision being made during the heat of anger, and it will also remove the charge of anger when none exists. Calmer judgment will control, and the punishment will be more likely to be just, and possibly less severe. This delay affords time to inquire into home conditions, and very often such investigation will bring to light circumstances that mitigate and perhaps entirely excuse the offence.

A boy was frequently late at school. After many remonstrances on the part of his teacher, and the fault not being corrected, he was sent to the principal. The boy sat for some time in the office, until finally the principal turned to him and said in a most kindly manner, "Thomas, tell me why you are so often late at school." "I can't help it," said the boy. "Does your mother know of your being so often tardy?" was next asked. "My mother is dead," replied the boy, bursting into tears. The principal's manner won the confidence of the lad and he told his whole story. It was as follows: His father was a laboring man, who was obliged to have his breakfast before six o'clock in order that he might go to his day's work. The boy had a little sister four or five years old, and a grandmother who was too feeble to assist in the household duties, and often too ill to leave her bed. This boy arose very early, assisted in getting breakfast, dressed his sister, cared for his grandmother, and put the house in order after his father had gone. Besides this, he sold papers every morning, contributing several dollars a week to the family funds. This accounted for his frequent tardiness. Now, a hasty judgment might have brought punishment upon a child who was doing noble, self-sacrificing work, and who deserved credit for attempting to go to school at all.

Such deliberate inquiry will often modify the punishment of a child, and, as our illustration shows, sometimes obviate it altogether. It may also bring the home into closer touch with the purpose and spirit of the school.

5. Use Judgment in Giving and Withholding Assistance. — A father, not long ago, said to me: "There is something radically wrong with our schools. Why, I have to spend one or two hours every evening in showing my children how to do their school-work. I am made a slave because teachers do not attend to their duty. What right have they to send children home knowing absolutely nothing as to the way to prepare their lessons, thus throwing the responsibility of teaching them upon the parents? I am tired of the whole scheme."

Not many days after that another father said to me: "My boys have nothing to do at home. They don't study, and they tell me that there is no need of their studying at home, for the teacher does all the work for them in school. I had to study when I went to school, and I am suspicious of a school that does not make the pupils study. There is something wrong about this."

Here we have two entirely divergent views by intelligent men in the same city, though their children did not attend the same school. Doubtless both exaggerated somewhat in their statements of the situation as they found it, but each was intelligently interested in the progress of his children. It seems to me that in these criticisms are indicated two great dangers in modern methods of instruction, — that of withholding all assistance, and that of helping too much. Now, it is not likely that any teacher would knowingly set tasks that require daily help from outside, nor is

it likely that any teacher intends to do so much of the child's work that little is left for him to accomplish. But the danger is there, and every teacher should be cautioned as to the manner of meeting it. These are not by any means isolated cases of complaint. There are abundant evidences that both of these extremes are frequently met. Where a parent encounters either of these faults, he has just cause for complaint. In the first case, it is the business of the teacher to instruct, and no parent can be expected to spend his evenings over his children's school-tasks. The teacher who habitually sends his pupils home for help is shirking his duty. In the second case, if the teacher does the work for the child, as he is tempted to do, being able to perform it quicker and more easily, he is robbing the child of the opportunity and the pleasure of learning, for without self-activity there is no education.

The key to the whole situation lies in the proper giving and withholding of assistance. There is no higher test of the skill and judgment of a teacher than this. Herbart lays stress upon educative instruction (*Erziehende-Unterricht*). The child learns through the instruction given by the teacher, the method most commonly followed by German teachers to the present time. Froebel, on the other hand, gives emphasis to the self-activity of the child in his method of teaching. The true method doubtless employs both of these ideas — instruction, which leads and directs the child so that he will be stimulated and interested, and so that he will not take false steps; and self-activity, which also needs directing. The teacher must give such instruction concerning the lesson as will direct the pupils how and what to do, whether in seat-work or home-work, and then the pupils themselves must be required to perform

the work. Parents should not be called upon to aid or to instruct their children; they should, however, see to it that certain hours are set apart for home study, and require their children faithfully to employ this time. More than this cannot be asked, and more than this the teacher should not expect. If it is found that the work assigned is too difficult for the children to do, let them take it back to the school for further assistance.

On the other hand, the teacher must not do any work for the pupils that they can perform with a reasonable amount of effort. The tendency of modern schools and modern methods is to offer too much help to the pupil, so that he fails to gain the persistence and diligence which are necessary in surmounting obstacles. Life is made up of struggle, and the child must not be freed from meeting a reasonable amount of trial in his school-work. The pupil who easily succumbs, whenever he meets a serious difficulty in his lessons, is not likely to become a man who, when overtaken by adversity, arises from the ruins and courageously begins again. This quality of manhood is not to be gained by effeminate methods. It is gained only through persistence, and pupils must be taught to overcome difficulties through their own efforts. Then, too, the joy, the triumph of victory will be theirs.

But there often comes a time when help should be given to the child, when to continue longer upon a task would be unprofitable. Just when that point is reached, it is difficult to determine. The temperament of the child must be taken into account. A naturally persistent and ambitious child may spend more time upon a task than is profitable; may, as it were, waste time. One that is lazy or too easily discouraged must be held to his task. In

general, we may say, that the time for assistance has arrived when the point of discouragement is reached. What the child himself can accomplish with reasonable effort he must be allowed to do if ambitious, and required to complete if lazy. When the teacher has the wisdom and tact to bring about these conditions, the two forms of complaint we have been discussing will no longer have any justification.

6. Have Patience with the Dull Child. — Most children at some time in life pass through a period in which both the physical and the intellectual powers are below the normal. There are physiological causes for this which the study of childhood in recent years has revealed and partially explained. Every teacher has had pupils who have been bright and efficient in their school-work, but who came to a time when it was almost impossible for them to learn. Such pupils are likely to be denominated dull, especially if through changes of teachers or through promotion the teacher does not have them long enough to become acquainted with their condition. The management of such cases requires great patience and skill on the part of the teacher until the child regains his health and vigor and his apparent dulness passes away.

Even if the child is naturally dull he is deserving of the best of attention. To teach the bright, interesting pupil is very easy; but to arouse and interest those that are dull, tests the teacher's power. The latter requires skill, patience, tact, good judgment, zeal, versatility. The results, however, often more than compensate for the extra trouble. The dull child learns persistence, perseverance, value of effort, through the hard work that he must do to gain the victory. One may easily write his name on the

sand at the seashore; but the rising tide, the breath of wind, or the passing foot-tread, just as easily obliterates it. To write one's name on marble or granite requires great patience, but how enduring is the inscription! Just so the mind that easily takes an impression is apt easily to lose it; and the mind that receives the impression only by hard and persistent effort, retains it.

Every old teacher can testify that some of his most promising pupils have failed in life, while some of his dull ones have attained great success. The former depended upon their brilliancy, and expected to win without a struggle; the latter depended upon hard work through which they compelled success.

Peter Cooper was called a dunce at school, Sir Isaac Newton and James Watt were regarded as blockheads, and Sir Walter Scott was considered half-witted. General Grant exhibited no brilliant qualities either as a child or as a cadet at West Point, and yet it was his determination to "fight it out on this line if it takes all summer" that crushed the Rebellion.

Then, too, the teacher sometimes meets pupils who, although of excellent general ability, are sadly lacking in ability to acquire some particular subject. Emerson could not learn mathematics. Colonel Parker said that so far as music is concerned he was "an idiot." "My daughter was obliged to leave school because her principal insisted upon her studying mathematics," said a bank president. He added, "She simply could not learn mathematics, and she inherits this defect from me." When a defect is apparent, school life should not be made a burden to a child by persisting in his taking the work which he does not possess the power to grasp.

My plea here is not for the imbecile — he belongs in the school for the feeble-minded — but for the slow, the plodding, the dull child, who deserves, and so often proves himself worthy of, an opportunity. Education is a birthright of every person, and it must not be denied to the dullard any more than to the child of brilliant parts. Marden says: "The world has been very kind to many who were once known as dunces or blockheads after they have become very successful; but it was very cross to them while they were struggling through discouragement and misinterpretation. Such lives do not show, however, that a numskull is sure to climb to the top. Because the last boy in his class became the great Henry Ward Beecher, there is no reason to conclude that the last boy in the next class, or the next, must become anything great at all. There must be some life in the boy, or he will not rise under any circumstances until the day appointed for the resurrection of the dead. If he starts out in life as a failure, he will end as one, unless he gets thoroughly waked up in some way. Give every boy and every girl a fair chance and reasonable encouragement, and do not condemn them because of even a large degree of downright stupidity; for many so-called good-for-nothing boys, blockheads, numskulls, dullards, or dunces, were only boys out of their places, round boys forced into square holes."

7. **Have Eyes that Sometimes See Not.** — Children, like the young of all animal life, are full of play. Much of the mischief of children is entirely innocent, and it should, therefore, often be overlooked in school life. The teacher has only to guard against the "young steeds" getting the bit between the teeth and running away with him. Each

teacher must be a law unto himself, as to the liberties he may allow his pupils. An occasional tightening of the reins will suffice to show who is in command. Teachers who see evil in every bit of fun, and who try to crush the overflowing spirits of the children, are bound to have trouble in discipline. They soon acquire the habit of nagging, and their pupils learn how to annoy them. A great deal of innocent mischief must not be *seen* by the teacher.

A young teacher who had charge of a corridor in a boarding-school frequently sent girls to the principal for reprimand. The offences in the main were trivial. Now, when a teacher sends pupils too frequently to a superior officer for punishment, the latter will inevitably reach the conclusion that there is something wrong with the teacher, for discipline is a part of the duty of every teacher, which she cannot shirk. After repeated cases had been referred to him, the principal began to keep a record of the students sent to him by this teacher and of the offences with which they were charged. Having accumulated a long list in a few days, he invited the teacher to his office and showed it to her. She was quite astonished at the number and the trivial nature of the offences when they had been shown to her on paper. Then the principal told her that she was seeing too much, that a great deal that she had referred to him ought not to have been noticed, and that she must learn not to *see*. The young lady left the office feeling that her principal was not supporting her, that she was misunderstood, and that evil would surely follow if she carried out his advice. But after some reflection, she concluded to try his remedy. It took some time for her to get over her nervous alertness, and to learn to discriminate between what was really bad and what was innocent

and harmless. But she succeeded so far as to be able to report after a few weeks that she had conquered herself, and, moreover, that there was a real and decided improvement in the order of her hall. She had simply overcome the habit of being "fussy," and had learned not to see too much.

Let there be good-fellowship between teacher and pupils, and let the teacher be generous in excusing mischief that is not vicious. By this means, discipline will be improved, evil will not increase, and the work of governing will be reduced to a minimum.

8. Remember that You are Dealing with Immortal Beings. — The greatest duty committed to man is that of teaching young children. The reason for this is that the child is not to be trained as a horse or a dog may be trained, but possessing a mind, an immortal spirit, he is to be educated. The teacher will see in the child great possibilities, and he must take into account not only a life of usefulness for perhaps threescore years and ten, but also consider the child's immortal well-being. This does not mean that religious doctrines and creeds are to be taught in the public schools, but it does mean, in the broadest sense, that religion is to be taught. Most of all, it will be imparted by the teacher's own life, by his reverent attitude towards sacred things, by his belief in the destiny and inestimable worth of the human soul, and by his appreciation of the highest aim of education. Rosenkranz teaches that education is incomplete if the religious side of culture is omitted, and every educational thinker must agree with that teaching.

Although the doctrinal side of religion may not be taught

in the American school that is supported by public taxation, it is not claimed that doctrines are not essential. The peculiar tenets of each sect, where there is no state religion, must be taught in the home and in the church, and not in the public school. These outside agencies may thus complete the work of religious training.

But the public school may implant in the children a noble character, inspire them with a reverence for holy things, teach them a consciousness of dependence upon an All-wise Being, and a belief in their final destiny. This is the duty of the school, and I believe that parents of all shades of belief will welcome such teaching. I believe, further, that the time is nearly at hand when they will demand it of the schools. It doubtless can be done without arousing the spirit of sectarianism, or awakening the fear that cherished beliefs will be interfered with. Whether or not such teaching may be allowed, the teacher will not forget that the child committed to his care is an immortal being, and by a silent, reverent, and consistent life, he will lead his pupils towards the truth.

CHAPTER XIII.

INCENTIVES TO SCHOOL-WORK.

THE spirit of rivalry shows itself not only in the school, but also in other phases of life. On the playground, in mercantile and social relations, in the home, even among the lower animals, ambition is awakened by external incentives. The race-horse exerts himself to the greatest only when he has a rival or a running-mate. The athlete reaches his highest endeavor when pushed to the utmost by a worthy opponent. In the United States Treasury Department at Washington a most skilled and rapid workman is employed by the piece in certain work, while the others in the same department are employed on salary by the day. The first-named workman sets the pace for the others, who are led to more rapid work in order not to fall too far behind their leader. They are stimulated to greater effort by his example.

This natural tendency to increased energy when spurred by other persons may be employed to arouse children to better school-work and to renewed efforts in acquiring correct habits of self-discipline. How to use this without awakening envy, and how to lead pupils to their best endeavor, is an important problem. The incentives chosen should be of a nature to awaken generous rivalry without injuring other pupils. The competition in athletic sports which goes so far as to injure a formidable opponent in

order to "put him out of the game," cannot be defended upon any ethical principle. It should be condemned not only by the authorities, but also by the student-body and the contestants themselves. That one should endeavor to excel others is perfectly fair and legitimate; but to defeat them by unfair means, by resort to brutality, by seeking to injure or to destroy, must be discountenanced as unsportsmanlike and unrighteous. This wrong spirit can show itself as truly in the schoolroom in connection with studies as upon the playground or the athletic field.

I propose to discuss the principal incentives employed in the school, and to show how they may be properly and legitimately used.

1. **Emulation.** — No educators have used emulation as a school incentive to the extent that it was employed by the Jesuits. They reduced emulation to a system, setting one pupil to watch another, one class to compete with another, one school to rival another school. It is said that the pupil was rewarded "not only for his own good conduct, but for the bad conduct of his comrades if he informed against them." This course of action would certainly have a tendency to debase the informer, and must have cultivated ungenerous and selfish motives in him, while possibly it wrought injustice to the person informed against. Meanness, deception, and intrigue would be the natural outcome, because of the reward offered for the betrayal of a comrade. Therefore emulation thus practised cannot be too strongly condemned.

And yet, as emulation is a natural instinct, it can be used in the school without evil effects. The principle governing its use should be *excelling without degrading others.*

Especially may it be employed with young children. A child reads a paragraph. "Who will try to read this better?" asks the teacher, and many hands will be raised in generous and ambitious rivalry. Children are invited to do their best in a written exercise, and the teacher selects the best and commends it. Rapid and neat work in number is called for, and the successful pupil is praised. Neatness in dress, in the care of school-books, and of the pupils' desks, is suggested, and the child most worthy receives commendation. A great many opportunities to incite proper emulation will be found. Effort as well as success must be taken into account. The success of one pupil is not dependent upon the degradation of another. Such rivalry is healthful, generous, and inspiring. Emulation can be very properly used in the school to stimulate pupils to greater exertion and to arouse their ambition, and it need not provoke their envy.

2. **Class Rank.** — Most colleges in former years laid stress upon class rank. Inasmuch as it has often occurred that men of high class rank have failed to rank high in life, and men low on the list of the graduating class have become leaders among men, the wisdom of college ranking has come to be seriously questioned. Perhaps another reason for discontinuing the custom is that the much larger number graduated from our colleges makes ranking according to number impracticable. The evils of the system were obvious. Some men would sacrifice every interest for the sake of a high rank, while others have been known to wreck their health in their superhuman efforts to take the highest rank in their class. Now, no one would discourage a student from seeking a high standing

in his classes; but to bend every energy to that end without reference to the perfect assimilation of material, and to the detriment of health, is a false incentive. A wiser plan has generally been adopted, in which a few "honor men" are selected to designate superior work and ability.

With children even less stress should be laid upon class ranking. For this reason the use of letters instead of numbers has been adopted. This may be illustrated as follows: For excellent, E; for good, G; for fair, F; and for poor, or not passed, P. This scheme does not admit of close comparison on the part of the children, and is therefore to be commended. Thus, if one child gets 94 and another 96 in some subject, there is opportunity for them to compare notes, and dissatisfaction may be created. By the use of letters both would get E, and there would be no cause for complaint, while the facts are sufficiently indicated for all grading purposes.¶

A form of class ranking may serve as a temporary diversion; for example, the practice of "going up" in oral spelling. It should be employed only occasionally, and it may be used as a kind of game; at the same time it excites interest in oral spelling.

3. **Prizes.**—The danger of giving prizes in ordinary school-work lies in the fact that they reward success rather than effort; that they arouse jealousy, and that they are likely to subject the teacher to the charge of unfairness. Besides this, it is difficult to give prizes on a perfectly fair basis. One child receives help at home, is unhampered by outside duties, has more books and material to work with, is able to attend school more regularly than another whose efforts are, perhaps, more worthy. Then, too, the contestants

usually narrow down to a small number of pupils, perhaps two or three, who need the incentive least of all. Therefore, the offering of the prize accomplishes no good end. If, early in the contest, all but a few drop out, the other pupils becoming mere partisans of their particular friends, evil, and not good, is the inevitable result.

I remember, when a boy, entering a contest for a prize, and I can never dismiss the idea that my teacher treated me unfairly. I did not win the prize! The contest was in spelling, and it lasted the whole term. The pupils stood up in a long line, each spelling orally in turn. The teacher let a misspelled word pass without comment, and any pupil who noticed the error could take up the word, spell it correctly, and go above the one who had missed it. It was the duty of the pupil who stood at the head of the class to correct all misspelled words that had not been corrected down the line, when it came his turn. If he corrected ten words and failed to remember a single one, any one below him might spell it and displace him. Thus it will be seen that it was a memory test as well as an exercise in spelling. At the close of the lesson, the pupil remaining at the head of the class scored a point, and took his place at the foot, to begin again the next day to work his way up. The contestants were soon reduced in number to two pupils, of whom I was one. None of the others had the slightest interest in the contest, except as they were partisans of the two leaders. The suspicion became general that the teacher favored my opponent. It was noticed that as soon as she reached the head, the lesson was discontinued; whereas, so long as I remained there, he would continue to pronounce words until the inevitable came, and I was displaced. It is quite likely that this

suspicion was unjust, and that the teacher meant to give us an equal chance. But excitement ran high, and the contest afforded an opportunity to form this judgment. It worked evil to both pupils and teacher, whether justly or unjustly, and occasioned a loss of confidence. Such a contest should never be entered upon. It is debasing to school morals; it arouses animosities, and does not secure better work among the pupils as a whole.

If prizes are given at all, they should be for things upon which all can enter with equal chance, such as deportment, regularity, punctuality, neatness, etc. A teacher offered prizes to her pupils for keeping their boots blacked, their hands and nails clean, and for general neatness of person. It had a good effect, for all could enter the contest.

In general, it is better that prizes should be offered by outsiders, and that the judges also should be persons not connected with the school. Many of the evils enumerated will be avoided thereby. This is usually the plan pursued in colleges, where prizes in the form of scholarships, fellowships, money, etc., are given. The charge of favoritism is thus eliminated, and great good to worthy students may be done.

It would be unwise to give a sweeping condemnation of the idea of offering prizes. Scholarship may be promoted, science fostered, invention stimulated, and investigation in new fields of learning and enterprise furthered. The Oxford scholarships founded by the late Cecil Rhodes, whereby students from many lands will be enabled to pursue advanced studies in the great English university; scholarships and fellowships established in all of our colleges and universities; prizes offered by individuals and by scientific

societies to promote research, — all these must exert a wonderful influence for good. The competitors, however, are mature persons. The conditions under which these prizes are offered are such as to prevent their being unworthily or unjustly bestowed. Hence, the evils of the ordinary school prize are guarded against.

We may say, then, in conclusion, that the prize is an unworthy means of stimulating children, except where all may enter the contest with equal expectation of success. The teacher cannot rely upon prize-giving as a wholesome incentive for school-work.

4. **Marking.** — Many teachers follow the practice of marking each pupil when he has completed a recitation. The pupil soon regards the mark as the end for which he recites. It is well known that pupils become acute in watching the motion of the teacher's pencil so that they are able to detect the ten, the six, or the zero which they may get. The gravest evil of this system, consequently, is that it incites the pupil to work for the mark only.

There are teachers who seem to rejoice in catching a child in error, and they put down a zero with evident satisfaction. It does not take children long to discern this spirit. It is as though the purpose of the recitation is to see how many pupils can be made to fail, rather than to arouse their highest effort. I shall show later (p. 179) that the purpose of the recitation centres around the idea of finding out what the pupils know instead of what they do not know.

A system of accurate marking makes the teacher a slave to the mechanical side of his work, destroys direct interest in the lesson, and stands between him and his class con-

tinually in the thought of both. Should it arouse the class to increased effort, which may be doubted, its baneful influence more than counterbalances the good effects because of the end in view. Nor does the evil cease with the lesson. The teacher unnecessarily adds to his own burdens in the monthly averages that must be made out. For a mechanical system of marking carries with it the footing-up of rows of figures and the reckoning of averages in order to find out exactly how each pupil stands in each subject. It is the most profitless and tiresome work that a teacher can undertake; and, withal, it is thoroughly useless if not vicious. There is enough drudgery which cannot be escaped without the teacher taking upon himself any that can be dispensed with.

Purpose of marking. — The purpose of marking is merely to assist the teacher's memory when he comes to the consideration of the periodical report or of promotion. Possibly the presence of marks in the record-book may satisfy parents who question the judgment of the teacher in regard to the report sent home. Where the class is large, a few marks may be necessary to indicate the weakness of pupils who are not doing well. If the record-book shows many entries against a name, errors only being marked, it will soon attract attention, and lead to inquiry as to the cause of bad work. Surely the purpose of marking is not to keep an accurate debit and credit account with every pupil. No child should be subjected to such a system.

Method suggested. — A system of marking that absorbs the chief attention of both pupils and teacher, that makes the recording of daily work an end and not a means, is to be condemned. But marking can be employed as an incentive for school-work without inviting the evils de-

scribed. Let me suggest a plan by which it may be so employed.

1. *Mark only unsatisfactory work.* — It will be noticed that I do not say *perfect* work. No school-work is absolutely perfect, and yet most of it should be satisfactory; if not, either the subject-matter has been too difficult, or the explanation of it has been inadequate. In either case the fault is the teacher's and not the pupils'. When only unsatisfactory work is marked, there will be but little marking necessary, hence the page will remain comparatively clean. Thus it follows that the drudgery of making out monthly reports will be lessened. Instead of long lines of figures to add, there are but a few figures scattered over the page, which the teacher has entered to aid his memory when he comes to determine what the average should be. It is to be remembered that only unsatisfactory work is recorded. If the record is expressed in letters, E, G, F, and P, as already suggested, the purpose will be adequately met, and sufficient data will be furnished for indicating each pupil's monthly or term standing. Marking only unsatisfactory lessons greatly simplifies the system, saves time, keeps the matter of records in the background, and yet furnishes all needed information.

2. *Mark only at the end of the recitation.* — When a pupil is called upon and fails to do well, make a note and go on with other pupils. Let every pupil understand that marks are given only at the close of the recitation, and that there is opportunity to redeem error so long as the recitation lasts. If a child succeeds in proving that he has been faithful in preparation and that he understands the lesson as a whole, no entry of a single mistake need be made. Thus, the whole class will be kept alert until

the close of the recitation; whereas, under a system of close marking, when a pupil gets a ten, he is satisfied, and does not need to exert himself any further, and if he gets a zero he is likely to be angry and refuse to try again. Each pupil as soon as he has recited might almost as well be excused from the class, for the end sought, the mark, has been attained.

But if no record is made until the close of the lesson, interest will be maintained, and undue attention to marks will be avoided. As there is so little marking, it may in some cases be done while the classes are changing.

3. *Do not announce the mark given.* — It is not the business of the children to know what is entered in the teacher's record. As we have said, marks are merely private signs to assist the teacher's memory when the monthly averages are recorded. Even if figures are employed, these figures are not to have strict mathematical significance. The characters are simply a guide to the teacher in arriving at a sufficiently accurate judgment. Hence there is no reason for giving the pupil his daily mark, for it would have no correct meaning to him. Children will soon cease to ask, and will give attention to the work in hand, which is the mastery of the subject without reference to any record made.

We reiterate that this plan of marking will be easy, will be sufficient for all purposes, will serve as a means rather than an end, and will allow the teacher to give his whole thought to the recitation. The legitimate purpose of the school, that of instructing the pupils, will thus be furthered.

5. **The Highest Incentive.** — The highest incentive for endeavor in the school must be found in the lessons them-

selves. When the pupils study for the love of learning, when they seek the mastery over the subjects of their course because they want to know them, when they find interest in their school duties, then they have reached the highest incentive of school activity. Emulation, class rank, prizes, marking, may be employed as temporary expedients, but the teacher should have the end in view from the outset, and should never be satisfied until that end is reached. A personal experience taught me this important lesson. I relate it in the hope that the truth may come home to my readers with added force.

It was the last night of a seven days' trip through the Thuringian Forest in Germany.[1] Twenty-five teachers belonging to Stoy's Pedagogical Seminary, Jena, and about fifty boys from twelve to fourteen years of age, constituted our party. The boys were soundly sleeping upon the straw in the hotel ballroom, and the teachers were assembled for their last conference. The week's experiences had been reviewed, its lessons summarized, and a tentative scheme of the uses to be made of the material collected. The week had been rich in historic, geographic, and scientific interest. Scenes of some of the world's most mighty events, — the principal battle-grounds of the Thirty Years' War; the Wartburg, where Luther translated the Holy Scriptures; many of the places where he had lived, taught, and preached, and where the Reformation first took root; the spot where St. Boniface founded the first monastery and introduced Christianity into Germany; Salzungen, where Charlemagne made the natural salt springs of commercial value, — these and

[1] For a full account of this trip, see my "Foundations of Education," Chapter XV.

many other historic places had been visited during those seven memorable days. The rivers, mountains, villages, and cities of this most beautiful section of the Fatherland had been studied, thus obtaining practical lessons in geography. Manufactories had been inspected, and many important lessons concerning the economic conditions of the boys' native land derived. Plant and animal life had been carefully noted, the formation of rocks and the character of the soil examined, preparatory to most valuable lessons in nature study and science.

Besides this, the daily contact of teachers and pupils had awakened sympathies and strengthened bonds destined to form the groundwork for future moral and spiritual culture. This rich material had been noted in the boys' diaries under the supervision of the teachers, to be utilized in the school-work of the coming year. The result of this study was to appear in a final and extended description which each boy was to make. It is evident that such a trip would furnish an abundance of valuable and interesting material which could scarcely be exhausted during the whole succeeding year.

It occurred to me that I could encourage the boys in this work by offering a special incentive, a prize. Accordingly I proposed to give ten marks, to be distributed in three prizes of five, three, and two marks, to the three pupils producing the best descriptions respectively. My offer was received by the teachers with applause, but I thought with some reserve. The following morning I saw the principal, and asked him to tell me frankly what he thought of my offer. His reply taught me the lesson that I am trying to inculcate, which may justify this lengthy description. He disclosed to me politely the

attitude towards my proposition that he felt compelled to take. He said: "We appreciate most fully your kindly intention, but we cannot accept your offer. It would be contrary to all of our pedagogical teachings. These boys are all poor, and the prizes you offer would be a strong inducement to them, and one which would be constantly before them throughout the year. An unwholesome and unnatural stimulus would be furnished. I cannot consent to it. My boys must do the work that we are going to ask of them, because they love it and are interested in it, and not because of any outside incentive. It is our duty as teachers to awaken in them a love for their school-work, and if we fail to do this we are not good teachers. No, my dear sir, we cannot accept your offer, nor can we allow our boys to know that you have made it." I never forgot the lesson. It was one of the most valuable educational theories ever propounded to me, and it was perfectly sound.

The highest incentive must be found in the subject-matter itself. The teacher, by the method used, by his love for the work, and his interest in it, by zeal and earnestness and knowledge, must arouse and inspire his pupils also to love it. There is no subject in the curriculum with which this is not ultimately possible. Although the other incentives, such as prizes, class rank, etc., may sometimes be employed as temporary expedients, the teacher should aim to bring his pupils to the high plane insisted upon by my German friend, namely, that of study for the love of the subject studied.

CHAPTER XIV.

PROMOTION.

EVER since La Salle, more than two hundred years ago, originated the "Simultaneous Method" of instruction whereby pupils of about the same advancement are taught together in classes instead of individually, the problem of promotion has agitated the educational world. Some have even gone so far as to condemn the classification of pupils and to advocate the return to "individualism," pure and simple. Doubtless the economy of instructing many pupils at the same time, and the simplicity of a scheme which allows a number of children to be placed together for a certain period and for the same work, are attractive to schoolmen. The plan admits of a whole class being promoted in a body; it is, however, a plan that has been found, if too rigidly administered, to work injustice to some of the pupils. Thus evils have grown up under the system. The individual needs are often lost sight of; each class is expected to perform the same work in the same time; a certain number of pages of the text-book are specified in the curriculum to be covered in a given number of weeks, regardless of the ability of the class; the work becomes mechanical and automatic in its operation; and the efficiency of the teachers is estimated by their success in grinding out the required specifications. Full-year courses with a fixed amount of work, followed by promotion at the end of the year, only make promotion a very serious

matter. And when a pupil who falls but a fraction of one per cent below the fixed passing-mark is required again to go over the whole year's work, the matter becomes of vital importance to both pupil and parent. This system has a tendency to drive pupils from the school, because they cannot bear the thought of spending another year upon subjects that they have nearly mastered, or in which they have failed through a possible accident in an examination. Many teachers go to this extreme, and pupils and schools suffer thereby. I have known pupils to be sent back for another year because their average was only 74.9, while the required promotion-mark was 75.

But there has been a decided reaction against these rigid methods in recent years, and consequently the evils mentioned have largely disappeared. Dr. Harris, in speaking upon this point, says: "This evil has been remedied in nearly one-half of the cities by promoting pupils whenever they have completed the work of a grade. The constant tendency of classification to become imperfect by reason of difference in rates of advancement of the several pupils, owing to disparity of age, degree of maturity, temperament, and health, makes frequent classification necessary. This is easily accomplished by promoting the few pupils who distance the majority of their classmates into the next class above, separated as it ought to be by an interval of less than half a year. The bright pupils thus promoted have to struggle to make up the ground covered in the interval between the two classes; but they are nearly always able to accomplish this, and generally will in two years' time need another promotion from class to class. The procrustean character of the old city systems has been removed by this device." The abandonment of the

examination as the sole means of measuring the progress of the pupil, and the greater reliance upon the teachers' judgment, have also materially aided in bringing about this reform.

It must not be thought, however, that the question is as yet by any means settled, or that the final word on this subject has been spoken. While it is not probable that the schools will ever return to the former method of deciding upon promotion, many thoughtful men believe that the examination has a place in educational practice, and in a complete scheme of instruction. I shall consider this question in the following chapter.

Object of Promotion. — What is the object of promotion? It may be remarked that promotion in itself does not advance the pupil an iota in knowledge, though the child and the parent may think that it does. The sole object of promotion is to place the pupil where he can do the best work. If he has mastered the work in a given class, or has so far mastered it as to be able to accomplish more in a higher class, he should be advanced. He may even be promoted on trial as a stimulus to him, his continuance in the higher class to be dependent upon his disposition and ability to maintain a good standing there. Whenever either of these conditions exist, whether at the end of the term or at any other time, a trial should be accorded the pupil. The point is that he shall be placed where he can get the most out of his school life, and no rigid system should be allowed to defeat this end. I conceive this to be the purpose of promotion.

If the pupil can get the highest good by remaining in his present class, he should be kept there, regardless of

his own entreaties and of outside pressure. It is even a greater wrong to hurry the pupil over a course more rapidly than he is able to master it well than to require him to go too slowly, for in the former case he gets only a superficial view, while in the latter he gains thoroughness and perfect mastery. The Germans seem to have this thought in mind in having only six years of work specified in their course, although they require eight years of school attendance in which to accomplish that work. Instead of the child being hurried from grade to grade as though the sole end of school-work were promotion, he rarely completes the six grades in six years, but drops back at least twice, so that it takes him eight years to complete the course. Now, I do not advocate the adoption of this plan in American schools. It has very serious defects which the Germans themselves recognize; but it certainly tends to wonderful thoroughness in all school-work. It would seem that holding the pupils back would be discouraging to them, and that there would be little incentive to earnest application. I have the testimony of adult Germans that the plan works well, that the repetition of a year's work, especially the last, adds to the clearness of the subjects, and fixes much that had not been well understood. The last year, instead of being irksome, is described as being full of interest.

The child should be promoted, then, or held back, as the case may be, according to his personal needs. The mere act of promotion has no educational value whatever. There are schools where the subject of promotion is uppermost in the minds of the pupils, where teachers labor for that end, where parents are on the alert with reference to it, and where the whole school sentiment of a community

centres around this idea. Pupils are moved forward rapidly, but at the expense of sound educational progress, as their career in higher institutions amply proves. Such an ideal of school-work and such an atmosphere cannot fail ultimately to work harm.

The proper ideal in a school community, as to promotion, is reached when the aim is thoroughness in the mastery of all school-work, when pupils and parents have absolute confidence in the teacher's ability, judgment, and disposition to place the child where he can get the most good and do the best work. When this is being done for the child, it makes but little difference what the grade in which he is placed is called; the school is doing its best for him.

Frequency of Promotion. — For many reasons there should be stated times for promotion. A goal is set towards which both pupils and teacher may aim. While the act of promotion, as we have seen, does not advance the child in knowledge, it indicates an end reached, and evidences progress by means of standards that are understood. Thus, when we say that the pupil is in the sixth grade, every one understands that preceding grades have been passed, and that certain work, the scope of which is marked out, is being done. Each promotion marks an event in the child's life, perhaps changes him to a higher room and another teacher. It stimulates him to renewed endeavor in his new environment. Children love change; and while this may be so frequent as to cause unrest and instability, — perhaps nervousness, — change in their occupation and environment is essential.

I have said that promotion should be made at stated times, at least so far as the class as a whole is concerned.

Otherwise the work of the school is broken up, the classes are disintegrated, steady, systematic progress is interfered with, superficiality is encouraged, and, as we have seen, undue prominence is given to the mere act of promotion. Individual pupils will be moved forward or backward whenever it is found that the peculiarities of their case demand such action. But the class as a whole should continue its work until the end of a stated period, which, however, must not be too long. If some pupils show superior ability in given subjects, and yet not enough to warrant advancement before the regular time, no great harm will be done if they are held back for a short interval. Although they may perform their tasks better than others, the watchful teacher will have no difficulty in keeping them profitably employed. There is an abundance of correlated material suitable for every grade that may be offered to keep them busy and furnish a broader view of the work than may be required of the whole class. This will prove no loss to them, but rather a decided gain. In the best sense, the child is being educated, and his education is the purpose of the school; and if this aim is secured, it makes but little difference what grade he is in. I am not arguing against promotion, but against making it the chief end of school-work. Let it be an event that comes at stated periods, which gives evidence to parents and to the world that the child has successfully mastered certain work, that he is prepared to enter upon another grade. Let the child find joy in the recognition of success to which promotion is a testimonial, but let him find more joy in the knowledge he has obtained, and in the consciousness of complete mastery of his tasks.

A bright boy of about twelve years of age wished to

enter my school. In examining him I asked, "What do you know, my lad?" "Well, sir," he replied, "I don't know much of anything." "Where have you been at school?" I next inquired. "I have been in a number of schools, but in none very long," was his answer. "What grade do you expect to enter?" I pursued. "You will have to put me in a very low grade," said he. After questioning him concerning various subjects, I found that he really had been very poorly taught, and therefore I placed him in a grade two or three years below that of his age, and he was perfectly satisfied. I kept my eye upon him, however, and, at the suggestion of his teacher, moved him up a grade after a few days. I promoted him again in a short time, and finally found where he could do the best work. Now, neither the boy nor the classes suffered by this proceeding. Any watchful teacher will soon discover if a pupil is out of place in a given class, and will promptly take steps to put him where he belongs.

There should be two stated promotions each year, and these will be sufficient for a large proportion of the class. This plan may be modified, especially in large schools where there are two or more parallel classes in each grade, by having one division called A, and another B, and so on, the work in the higher divisions being more advanced respectively. It can also be applied in small schools by forming different divisions in the same class, which could be plus (+) and minus (—). Thus, bright pupils would not be obliged to wait even till the semi-annual promotion of the whole class before being advanced to higher work.

In no case should the bright and the dull pupils be segregated. Bright pupils need not be retarded in their progress by association with those who must proceed more

slowly. They learn to be more thorough, while, on the other hand, their quickness of perception stimulates the slow pupil to greater intellectual activity. It is not sacrificing one for the other, for there is mutual benefit to both the bright and the dull child by association. Besides, as has been shown elsewhere, there is an abundance of extra material available to those who are capable of doing more than the regular tasks.

With semi-annual promotions, with elasticity in grading, with the use of subdivisions indicated by plus and minus, and with the advancement of special cases that stand out prominently, whenever the teacher is satisfied that it is best, the advantages and the economy of a grading system can be secured without loss to individual pupils. Class interest and class spirit will be awakened and maintained, and steady, wholesome, and sure progress will be assured.

Importance of the Teacher's Judgment. — The grade teacher, who daily instructs the class, who knows the personal characteristics of each pupil better than the pupil himself or his parents know them, who is an educational expert, who is sincere and devoted, who is studying the welfare of his pupils, — such a teacher is the most important factor in deciding the question of promotion, and he will not base his final judgment upon an examination, a test, a review, or the daily record, — any one of these alone, — but possibly upon several or all of these elements. He will also consider the physical condition of the child, weigh well the probabilities of success in a higher grade, and then determine whether or not he should promote. The sole question is, *Where can the pupil get the most good?* When that is decided, that is the grade into which

the child must be put. The teacher's judgment and knowledge of all of the conditions and of the child's capabilities are the most important factors in reaching this decision.

In doubtful cases, the advice of the principal, of the teacher of the next higher class, and perhaps of the whole faculty, may be summoned. Consultation between the teachers most directly interested, affords an opportunity to call attention to any peculiarities that the child may possess, and it enables several teachers to act in concert for the welfare of the pupil. By such a plan the dangers of rigid classification will be avoided, and each individual child will be fully cared for. At the same time the advantages of a definite system and the inspiration of class example and spirit will be retained.

Means of Determining the Fitness of a Pupil to be Promoted. — How shall the teacher satisfy himself that the child's mastery of the subject is sufficient to warrant his advancement to a higher class? Various means have been used in the past, the most common one being the examination. At the end of the term or year the pupil was examined, and if he reached the required percentage he moved forward; if not, he remained in the same class until the end of another like period, when he tried again. There are several weaknesses in this plan, as follows: (1) It does not always discover the truth as to the child's knowledge of the subject — he may be nervous or ill, and not do himself justice; on the other hand, he may be fortunate in having "crammed" upon the very questions asked without possessing any adequate acquaintance with the subject. (2) When the pupil has failed to pass, he is sent back for too long a period, thereby discouraging him,

and perhaps causing his withdrawal from school. Or, if he remains to go over the entire term's work, he does not find sufficient profitable employment. It fails to meet the requirement that the school must place the child where he can secure the greatest benefit. (3) It puts the responsibility of deciding as to the thoroughness of a whole term's work upon perhaps a single hour's trial. Under the stress and anxiety of this responsibility the child often fails to do himself justice. This objection may fall to the ground with adult persons who have learned self-command, who possess the maturity and strength to weigh the questions and collect their knowledge, and who have judgment and experience in such matters. But it is a valid objection with young children. (4) It is very difficult to formulate questions that will be simple and comprehensible to children, and yet exhaustive enough to furnish proof that the subject has been mastered. (5) When the examination is the sole means of determining fitness for promotion, the teacher is tempted to encourage cramming by drilling upon old examination papers, by anticipating probable questions, and otherwise definitely preparing his pupils for examinations. The leading motive of both teacher and pupils becomes, not the study of the subject for the sake of knowledge and power, but the mere "passing" the examination. Pernicious indeed does such a system become when the board of education and the community estimate the efficiency of the teacher and of the school by the proportion of pupils who succeed in successfully undergoing the examinations under such circumstances. Add to this the practice of advancing the teachers themselves upon the basis of their success in getting pupils through examinations, and the worst evils of such a system will be realized.

The other means by which the question of fitness is decided are tests, marking of daily recitations and averaging the records, or by a combination of these. In the following chapter I shall consider these means separately, and endeavor to point out the use of each in aiding the teacher to decide whether the pupil is ready for promotion.

CHAPTER XV.

EXAMINATIONS, TESTS, AND REVIEWS.

I HAVE thus far treated examinations as a means of discovering the fitness of the child for advancement, and have shown how inadequate they are for this purpose. I shall now discuss the subject of examinations itself. In order that there may be a clear understanding of terms, it may be stated that by an examination is meant an investigation or test, given by a proper authority, for the purpose of proving the knowledge or capacity of the persons examined in order to determine their fitness for something sought by them, as a degree, promotion, a testimonial of qualification, etc. An examination may be oral or written, public or private, comprehensive or narrow. Public oral examinations are apt to assume the nature of exhibitions, and should therefore be discouraged with children, who on such occasions are under unnatural excitement, and are therefore not likely to do themselves justice, while the disposition to "show off" is not to be encouraged.

There are three things that distinguish an examination:

1. *It comes at a set time*, as once a month, at the end of a term, before admission to an institution, or preliminary to an appointment in the civil service, etc. Because its date is fixed, opportunity is afforded to make special preparation for it. Here arises the danger of deferring preparation until the last moment, and then cramming for the definite purpose of passing. A distinction is to be made between

cramming, and special preparation under urgent stress. All hard work by the student, even though finished at the last moment, is not cramming. It is a splendid thing to possess the power of gathering one's self together for a supreme effort to do an unusual amount of work. Such exigencies occur all through life — in the bank or the mercantile house at the close of the month, at railroad stations during certain hours of the day, in almost every walk of life. Every man must be trained to fulfil his usual duties well, but also on occasion to do unusual work, to "spurt" as it were. One must be able to summon all his powers and employ them for a brief period under high pressure. So there is no objection to calling upon pupils to perform unusual tasks occasionally. But the bank clerk, the railroad agent, the train despatcher, does not fail to make all possible previous preparation. He does not waste his time till the last moment, and then attempt to make up for his negligence by herculean efforts. He performs all his routine duties at their proper time, and gets ready for the period of special exertion. The student who faithfully does the work of each day as it comes along, mastering each lesson and each subject as best he can, may indeed review that work before the final trial, and such review cannot be denominated cramming. He is simply summarizing, classifying, fixing the material which he already possesses in order to be able to bring it forward when called upon to do so. Under the time limitations of an examination, he is perfectly justified in making due preparation for the emergency.

But the student, on the other hand, who loafs, cuts his recitations, fails to perform his tasks day by day, begins to burn midnight oil and put forth extraordinary effort only a few days before the examination comes, in order to get enough

of the term's work to pass muster with the professor — such a student engages in cramming. The first-named student may even study hard at the last, but his purpose is not only to secure a high mark, but also to fix his knowledge. He then presents himself at the examination, conscious of strength, and not dependent upon "luck," or familiarity with the peculiarities of the examiner to carry him through. If he fail, it will be because the questions have not been fair, or because he has not yet fully prepared himself in the subject, and not because he has failed to be honest with himself or remiss in the performance of his duties.

The second student works with but one end in view, namely, to pass; and he cares but little if the material escapes him after it has served its end. His purpose is to answer successfully the required seventy or seventy-five per cent of the questions which he may have succeeded in anticipating. The former, by doing his best all of the time, has acted upon a principle that is essential to success in life; while the latter has pursued a careless and shiftless course, which forebodes ruin to character and failure in business. The one student does honest, hard work throughout the year, and perhaps exerts himself even more than usual as the examination approaches; the other student idles away his time during the regular work, and crams for the final test.

I have said that a characteristic of the examination is that it comes at a set time. Sometimes it is conducted once a year; again, and more commonly, at the end of the term; and, in some schools, it occurs once a month. The practice of monthly examinations is to be strongly condemned. It keeps the school keyed up to a high pitch of

nervous tension; it makes all school-work centre around this one idea; it occasions a vast amount of unnecessary and unprofitable labor for the teacher in reading an endless number of examination papers, in keeping records, and in making out reports; it is unnatural and unwholesome to school interests, and provocative of bitterness and unseemly strife; it puts a premium upon false methods, and lays stress upon what should be a mere incident in a scheme of education; it is quite unnecessary as a means of measuring progress or of determining the efficiency of work. If examinations are to be held, two or three a year are quite enough to satisfy all requirements. I shall endeavor to show in later discussions that the ends served by these even can be met by other means in the ordinary, common school work. Examinations will doubtless always be employed in many cases where adults are involved, where much depends upon the fitness of the candidate, and where the examiner has not been his teacher.

2. *An examination should cover the whole field in question.* It should be broad and comprehensive. If a subject has been completed, an examination should include the whole ground covered, provided it is the means employed to determine the proficiency of the student. If an institution admits students, advances them from class to class, or determines fitness for degrees by means of examinations, such examinations must be comprehensive and thorough, — otherwise the good name of the institution will suffer. The honor sought will be considered worthy of attainment just in proportion to the genuineness of the examination through which it is secured.

To cover the ground in the best manner, topical treatment, where possible, affords the most satisfactory means.

It furnishes opportunity to exercise judgment, to show breadth of thought and completeness of knowledge, as well as to indicate mastery of details and acquaintance with facts. If set questions instead of topics are given, as may be necessary with young children, these questions should be simple, clear, and comprehensible, but not suggestive so as to hint at answers or to admit of guesses. The answers should be in full statements.

3. A third feature of the examination is that *much depends upon it.* It marks the successful completion of a subject; and if the examination is passed, it stamps the candidate as ready to enter upon a new phase of work, to be promoted, to be admitted to a higher institution, to receive a degree, etc. Herein lies the chief objection to the examination as a deciding element, especially with young children. The anxiety under which the child labors and the unnatural excitement prevent him from doing himself justice, as has been shown elsewhere. It remains to be seen whether a safer, more accurate, and more natural means of determining the child's preparation for advancement may not be devised. That the evils enumerated above have actually appeared in many schools, sometimes in a most aggravated form, admits of abundant proof, and sometimes their presence has been attended with saddest results.

Educational Value of Examinations. — The examination as an educational means occupies a place for which it is difficult to find a complete substitute. Let us look at some of the advantages of the examination.

1. It tests the ability to summon all of one's powers upon occasion for extraordinary exertion, and to exhibit

the knowledge and power possessed upon a given theme, as we have already shown.

2. It trains the student in the use of good language, concisely put, under limitations of time.

3. It requires the exercise of judgment as to essentials and non-essentials.

4. It solidifies and clarifies the knowledge of the subject in the mind of the pupil.

5. It shows both pupil and teacher wherein the preparation has been weak, or where it has proved satisfactory.

There is certainly great educational value in each of the foregoing propositions; and if no substitute for the examination can be devised that will furnish the same advantages, it must be retained.

Character of the Examination. — It should be a fair test of work that has been covered, should be free from enigmas, and the language employed should be so clear that there can be no doubt as to the meaning of the question. Puzzling questions and "hard nuts to crack" may sometimes be offered during recitation in order to arouse mental energy, but not in the examination, where the entire strength of the candidate is to be devoted to proving the thoroughness of his understanding of the subject. The large proportion of a class that has been taught by the examiner himself should pass, else the questions have been too difficult or the teaching has been bad. A certain college professor made his examinations so difficult that nine-tenths of the students were bound to fail. A large part of his classes would leave the room upon seeing the questions, without attempting to answer them. As a consequence, the most of the members of his classes were

conditioned, and therefore compelled to take a second examination. This, however, was always made so easy that no one need fail, and thus the class would ultimately be advanced. It is needless to say that the students soon learned the professor's peculiarities, and generally waited for the second examination.

The examination should not be a mere test of memory, or a question of fact. Although it must include both of these, it is of far greater importance that it shall determine the accuracy, thoroughness, and power attained by the pupil. Of course, the degree of judgment to be expected depends upon the maturity of those examined.

Tests. — Many schools have recently adopted a system of tests for the purpose of assisting the teacher in deciding the question of promotion. Unlike the examination, the test occurs at the regular time of the recitation, covers a limited amount of work, is unannounced, and is not of vital importance. It is given without disturbance of the accustomed routine of the school, and without loss of time, while the examination requires several days, during which the regular exercises are abandoned and the school thrown into confusion. In set examinations the whole machinery of the school is disorganized, an unnatural and disquieting spirit pervades the pupils, the nervous tension is very great, and the best results of school-work cannot be secured. On the other hand, the test, occurring as it does at the regular recitation period, not only avoids these evils, but it also calls forth the best effort of the pupils, because the environment is not unusual, being the same as that of every other day.

As the test covers only a limited amount of work, and as it may take the place of a regular recitation, it may

occur whenever a phase of a subject is completed. It may be as frequent as the teacher deems necessary without any baneful effects, because it is given without previous notice and because little stress is laid upon it. No nervousness or unnatural excitement will attend a test given under the foregoing conditions. The moment, however, that it is announced, it partakes of the nature of an examination, and the calling of it by another name will not change its nature. Pupils will begin to cram for it and get anxious over it. It will be difficult to convince them that the teacher does not attach great importance to the test.

Care should be taken by the teacher to make clear to the pupils that the question of advancement or promotion does not depend upon the test alone. It is only one of several means employed to determine that question. Its main purpose is to enable the teacher and the pupils themselves to perceive how thoroughly the work has been accomplished, in order that weaknesses and errors may be corrected later. While the pupils will understand that more depends upon a test than upon the ordinary recitation, and therefore will exert themselves to do their best, yet the conditions are so normal that, as we have said, they will not be seriously disturbed, as in the case of the examination.

The genuine test shows what the pupils really know — proves it to them as well as to the teacher. Weaknesses discovered can be corrected by later reviews. This is an important advantage of the test. It also secures the educational advantages to be attained by the examination, namely, the ability to exert unusual power upon occasion, to put readily into good language knowledge possessed, to select the essential and reject the non-essential, to clarify in his own mind the materials at command, and to show where weak-

nesses exist. The test, therefore, may be employed to secure the ends sought in the examination, and it will sufficiently guide the teacher in determining the progress of his pupils. It will wholly suffice in grades below the high school, and possibly in the high school also. If the examination is still found necessary in a part of the high-school work, in college, in discovering fitness for degrees, teachers' licenses, or the civil service, the danger will be minimized because it involves persons of maturity, who are capable of exercising judgment, and who are not easily discomposed. Even with adult students, the test will often fully satisfy all the demands and fulfil the requirements which the examination is expected to meet. In the elementary grades, at any rate, the test may well be employed as a substitute for the examination.

Reviews. — The review also has its place as a determining factor in promotion, and likewise as a constant educative influence. Reviews should occur daily, and be systematic and persistent in character. Each recitation should begin with a review of previous work in order to connect the known with the unknown, to call up what is already possessed by the pupil as an introduction to the new material that is to be presented. It also deepens the impression of the old, classifies much that was not fully understood, and fixes the past lessons, while it prepares the class for the reception of the new lesson. "Repetition, repetition, repetition, should be the eternal watchword," said the late Karl Volkmar Stoy. The questions are put differently in the review, the subject is presented in a new light from that of the ordinary recitation, and therefore the pupils obtain a firmer hold upon the lesson.

But besides the daily review in connection with each recitation, there must also be the more extended and formal review which reaches back over the work of days and weeks. Children forget what they have been over, and their knowledge will be revived and fixed by the review. Teachers have often been mortified to find that their pupils have failed in subjects that were believed to have been well taught, and in which the children were thought to be proficient. Doubtless the failure was occasioned by insufficient reviewing of the work, whereas a proper method would have brought all of the units acquired day by day into one consistent whole. The review should aim to look over the entire field and bring all of the parts into a single relation, comprising a symmetrical structure of the knowledge imparted.

Hence while frequent reviews may be taken to keep the interest alive, and to keep the whole work before the class, a general and exhaustive review should be had when a subject or some phase of it is completed, rather than periodically. Weekly or monthly reviews do not meet this condition. Stated reviews, whether or not the class is ready for them, become stereotyped and formal. If held upon fixed days, as Friday afternoons, many children come to look upon them as a bore, a needless and valueless exercise, from which they escape by remaining out of school. Parents, too, are more ready to listen to their children's plea for a half-holiday on the ground that "there is nothing but a review." Thus, instead of attaining the educational end sought, the periodical review becomes a fertile means for defeating that end. If, however, the formal review occurs whenever a subject is completed, the regular work of the school is not disturbed. The exercise fits in where

it belongs as a part of the educational plan in completely rounding out the treatment of the subject.

It may be urged that the stated review affords an opportunity for parents to visit the school and witness the work which their children are doing. This makes the school exercises a mere show, which is most pernicious in its effect upon the character of the children. It does not exhibit the true work of the school, and therefore it is unnatural and misleading. This practice is carried to an extreme in German schools in what is known as the annual "Prüfung." Parents, who are excluded from regular school-work, are invited to be present upon these occasions. The children are put through a series of questions upon which they have been previously drilled. No pupil is promoted on account of his answers to the questions, that matter having already been settled. Care is taken that only the pupils who are likely to be a credit to the school, are allowed to recite. It doubtless causes parents whose children appear and do well to feel some pride in their achievements, but both pupils and teachers know that the whole affair is a sham. German educators universally condemn the practice, and have repeatedly petitioned the authorities to discontinue it. In some sections these petitions have secured the abandonment of the exercise. Inasmuch as American parents are not prohibited from visiting the schools, let them attend the regular exercises and witness the daily work of their children, and thus obtain a truer idea of what the school is accomplishing. If the teacher desires to get the attention of the school patrons, let him prepare special exercises for that definite purpose, and invite them in a body. The review of the school-work should not be degraded into a public exhibition.

Reviews should be both oral and written. By the oral review, the pupil is trained to express himself fluently upon a topic while standing. It is most desirable to secure accurate, connected, and logical statements, in good English. The review admits of such treatment far better than the daily lesson, where the knowledge is still fragmentary. The written review accomplishes the same end in written expression. It has the advantage that all of the pupils are called upon to answer each question simultaneously, and therefore it may be complete and satisfactory. The oral review, however, should not be neglected. Care must be taken not to let the written review run into a test. As the test carries far less weight than the examination, so the written review should carry less weight than the test. The examination, and equally the test, must never enter a new field; must never touch ground that has not previously been covered, because so much depends upon them. But the review may suggest new work without a wrong being committed, since little depends upon it.

To the review, the test, and sometimes the examination, is added the larger factor of the teacher's judgment based upon daily contact during recitation, and in the intimate and sympathetic relations with the children. Further, there is the fact that promotion in itself does not increase knowledge. With all of these agencies at his command, and with a sincere desire to place the child where his greatest progress will be attained and his greatest good subserved, we shall find that but few mistakes will be made in the matter of promotion. At the same time the work of the school will proceed in a natural, salutary manner, and the real purposes of education will be fostered and furthered.

children learn through hearing them recite. Every recitation, then, must consist of instruction by the teacher and recitation by the pupils. This double activity serves to fix the material in the minds of the children, while it prepares them to continue their education after they have left the school and are no longer under the direction of the teacher.

1. **Assigning the Lesson.** — When should the lesson for the next day be assigned? The practice of many teachers is to perform this important duty at the close of the recitation. This enables them to see how well the present lesson has been prepared before going on to the next. If the periods are long, say thirty or forty minutes, or if there are automatic signals to give warning of the close of the period, this plan is practicable. Few of our schools, however, are equipped with an automatic signal system, and the periods are necessarily short, especially in a mixed school. When the next day's lesson is assigned at the end of the period, there is danger that its importance will not be sufficiently appreciated. "Take the next two [illegible]," or "Work the following five ex[illegible]," says the [illegible]her at [illegible] moment [illegible] the t[illegible] missal of [illegible] class [illegible] and [illegible] called. This in[illegible] of a[illegible] that [illegible] to this [illegible] to floun[illegible] when a few [illegible] have [illegible] part of [illegible]

common in American schools, nor do children need to do much home-work. "How do the pupils learn their lessons?" may well be asked if they do not study at school or at home. They learn their lessons by means of the instruction of the teacher in class. He imparts the lesson, and they absorb what he gives. Through skilful questioning he finds out how well his pupils have comprehended his teaching. Even the questioning has the purpose of instructing as well as of proving their knowledge. The most serious defect of this method is that it leads the children to depend upon their teacher for all of their material, and hence they are unable to investigate and discover for themselves. Although they leave school with an excellent mastery of the subjects included in their school course, they lack the ability and the disposition to go on with their education. This is a most vital criticism of the German method, for the most important equipment of a child upon leaving school is the ability and disposition to help himself; and the justification of this criticism is manifest in the fact that the fine training of the eight years' common-school course for the mass of the people is rarely followed by any further education.

Does not the truth lie between the purely *reciting* method of American schools and the *instruction* method of the German schools? It is certain that in every recitation there must be something taught. When the teacher finds that a period has passed without the pupils having been instructed, he cannot but admit failure. On the other hand, the pupils, especially young children, must have the opportunity to tell what they know, must answer questions. By telling or reciting, children directly instructed not only fix the lessons in their own minds, but other

children learn through hearing them recite. Every recitation, then, must consist of instruction by the teacher and recitation by the pupils. This double activity serves to fix the material in the minds of the children, while it prepares them to continue their education after they have left the school and are no longer under the direction of the teacher.

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sary to aid the pupil. This can be done without robbing them of the pleasure of discovery and of doing the work themselves. I have shown elsewhere that no teacher should do work that pupils themselves can do (see p. 162).

Failure properly to assign and explain the lesson often causes pupils to seek help from their parents, thus arousing criticism against the school for setting such hard tasks. Perhaps also the parents antagonize the work of the school by the employment of antiquated methods in assisting their children. I have shown (see p. 162) what the parent's duty in this matter is. It is a part of the teacher's work to prepare the child to do his work, and this preparation is made in the assignment of the lesson. In general, this should occur at the beginning of the recitation. Then sufficient time can be taken to give the necessary instruction concerning the subject. This is sometimes more important than hearing the lesson of the day, especially if a new field is to be entered. When the pupils are ready to take up new work, it matters little whether or not the old lesson is heard; but it is very essential that the new work be explained. It may be necessary in such a case to take the whole period in explaining and assigning the lesson, and great profit to the class may follow such instruction.

With the next lesson outlined, the teacher can devote the remaining time to the day's work without distraction and with little thought of the flight of time. If, however, it should be found that the pupils have not accomplished the day's task, and are not ready to take up the new work assigned, only a moment will be needed to say, "Children, as you have not quite mastered this work, we shall have to take it over again instead of the new lesson." This will

not often be necessary, for children soon learn what is expected of them, and try to measure up to the standard. Confidence on the part of the teacher awakens in the children a desire to be worthy of confidence. To assign the lesson at the beginning of the recitation may be considered as an expression of confidence that the children have been faithful in their work, and that they are ready to move forward into a new field.

2. **How to Study.** — Many pupils waste a great deal of time in futile and aimless work. If the lesson has been properly assigned, the children will not only know what the task is, but also how to accomplish it. Some general observations, however, may assist in attaining the power of wisely studying.

a. The preparation. — Before beginning to study, the child should get all the materials, books, etc, that he needs, so as not to be interrupted. It would be an unwise farmer that would begin his harvesting without seeing to it that his tools, his barns, his machines, were at hand and in order; or a foolish carpenter that would commence to build a house without collecting the materials and the tools he needed. So the child must be taught to get everything ready before he begins to study.

b. A time for everything. — The pupil must not be allowed to turn from one thing to another at every impulse; hence the importance of specifying in the daily program the work of the study as well as of the recitation periods. One thing at a time, and that the right thing, should be the motto. This prevents the study being desultory; it does not allow the pupil to attempt to get a smattering of many things, while, in reality, he acquires nothing. Children

must be taught to take up the study of each lesson in its proper time, and stick to each particular task until it is mastered.

c. The essentials of the lesson. — In every task there are essential things, and those less essential. It is important to be able to detect these, so as to enable one to devote time and strength to the most vital matters. It is a part of the teacher's duty to call attention to the points that are essential and are to be emphasized. This belongs to the work of instruction.

d. Concentration. — It is not the number of hours spent upon a lesson, but the intensity of the work, that counts. To spend a great deal of time dawdling over a lesson is not study. A student was in the habit of spending three hours on his Cæsar. He resolved to shorten the time by concentrating all of his energy while he worked. He soon reduced the time to two hours, then to one, and finally he acquired the habit of doing in half an hour what had formerly occupied three hours, and doing it fully as well. The pupil should be trained to bend his whole energy to a task, and to concentrate his entire attention when engaged in study. He must not allow himself to be disturbed by any external attractions or inconveniences.

e. Thoroughness. — Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well. Teach the pupil to master each step with thoroughness before proceeding to the next. In some subjects, it may be well to obtain a general view first, and then to take the particulars successively. It is better to be thorough with a part of the lesson, if that is all that the child is able to accomplish, than to get a smattering of the whole and a mastery of none. The teacher should be ready to accept a part well done, in preference to the

whole lesson poorly prepared, and the pupils should be taught to take this view of the case.

f. Repetition. — Only by repeating the work many times can the learner fix it in mind. After each step has been taken, let the lesson as a whole be repeated until not only the particulars are known, but also the relations of the parts to each other and to the whole are established. The pupil must be taught to go over the work a sufficient number of times to make it clear to his mind and to fix it in his memory. Although there may be no objection to the practice of letting a parent or some one else hear the lesson to see how well it is learned, especially with young children, the pupil should train himself to weigh his own knowledge, and estimate his thoroughness of preparation without the aid of other persons. At least this should be the ultimate end sought.

g. Conclusion. — When the lesson is learned, let it be laid aside until the recitation. Many children fret over their lessons and scarcely think of anything else. They peep into books on their way to school or just before the class meets, to catch a last fleeting idea concerning the lesson. Let them be taught when they work to work with all their might, and when they play to play with all their might. Work and play — each has its part in life's activity, and neither must trespass upon the other. Pupils will recite better if, after studying according to the plan outlined in the foregoing, and after having completed their preparation, they dismiss all thought of the lesson until the recitation comes.

The importance of teaching children how to study cannot be too strongly emphasized. If this lesson has been well taught, the child will do his work more easily and

better. It will also prepare him to attack the problems of life with intelligence and wisdom, and with great hope of success.

3. **The Art of Questioning.** — With young children question and answer will occupy a large part of the time of the recitation. Children lose interest unless they can take part in the exercises, while the lecture method is often satisfactory with adult students. Every teacher should study the art of questioning, as so much depends upon its successful application. The following suggestions may assist in this study:

a. The questions should be simple and clear. — There should be no doubt in the minds of the pupils as to what the teacher means, in order that there may be the desired concentration of thought upon the answer.

b. The questions should be logical in their sequence. — Although the child may not yet have reached the distinctive period of reasoning, the method of development and the arrangement of the questions must be logical. Otherwise there will be confusion in the child's mind in regard to the lesson. He will fail to obtain an adequate conception of the teacher's motive.

c. The questions should be the outgrowth of the teacher's full knowledge of the subject, and not the stereotyped questions of the text-book. — The questions in the text-book may be used to aid in review, to direct the thought to all phases of the subject, or to awaken interest in further investigation; but they should not be used in conducting the recitation. The teacher should stand before his class so full of his theme that the flow of questions will be rapid, spontaneous, direct. They will be original so

far as their language, their order, and their purpose are concerned. Only when this is true will the recitation be enthusiastic, interesting, and profitable, especially with young children.

d. The questions should have a definite purpose. — Without a specific aim, no matter how interesting the manner of the teacher, or how well he puts his questions, the desired end will not be reached. A bright primary teacher who had just given an enthusiastic lesson was asked by the principal, who had been present during the recitation, "What was the purpose of that lesson?" "Why, I don't know," she replied in confusion. There must always be a clearly conceived purpose in every recitation, and even in each of the questions that are put to the class.

e. The questions should be of such a nature as to stimulate thought. — Direct questions should generally be avoided. "Yes" and "No" answers do not prove thought. Single-word answers, as a rule, should be accepted only in rapid review. Where no thought has been aroused, the exercise must be considered a failure.

4. **Necessity of Attention.** — A college professor was accustomed to become so absorbed in his teaching that he entirely lost sight of what was taking place in his classroom. At one time seven games were in progress simultaneously during his lecture. Of course, there was no instruction for those who were playing games. The first essential in a recitation is attention, and not until that has been secured, is teaching possible. No recitation should begin until every pupil in the class is attentive. If the teacher is willing to continue an exercise with five per cent of the class inattentive, he will soon be obliged to be

satisfied if ten or fifty per cent are inattentive. But if he demands the attention of the whole class, and will not teach without it, he will soon get the class into the required condition. Nothing is so fatal to good order or successful instructing as indifference on the part of the teacher in the matter of attention. A young teacher was annoyed by several pupils in her class who were disposed to mischief. After reprimanding them without securing the desired result, she took out her watch and silently noted the time, as she held the watch in her hand. "What are you doing that for?" asked one of the boys. "Oh, I am taking account of the lost time," was her reply. "What for?" was asked again. "Why, in order to know how long to keep you after school," was the quiet answer. In a moment every pupil in the class was in order and giving good attention, and the teacher had no further trouble with them. This plan was far more effective than scolding or loud demands for attention would have been.

A few suggestions as to how to secure and maintain attention may be found profitable.

a. All disturbing influences should be guarded against,— such as, the flapping of window-shades, wrong temperature of the room, draughts, sun shining in the pupil's face or on his desk, or annoyances inflicted upon him by other pupils. Attention cannot long be held if the room is uncomfortable, if there is unusual noise, or if one pupil is sticking a pin into another.

b. Secure the attitude of attention, — that is, an erect position, facing the teacher. If possible, the children should be allowed to sit with their hands free; but it may be necessary to require them, temporarily at least, to fold their hands, especially if they be little children. In recita-

tion the pupils should be brought as close to the teacher as possible. It is difficult to hold the attention of pupils who are a long distance away, especially if other pupils in the room are engaged in study. Not only the attention but also the effectiveness of the instruction may be said to vary inversely as the square of the distance the pupil is away.

c. Make the work interesting. — This duty rests upon the teacher; and so long as the pupils are interested, their attention can be held, and no longer. Commands or artificial stimuli will fail more than temporarily to arrest and hold the attention if interest be wanting.

d. The recitations must not be too long. — With little children they should be very short, say ten or fifteen minutes. The length of the period depends also upon the subject. A class experimenting in physics can give attention much longer than one in history or logic.

e. Never teach without attention. — This is repeated merely to give emphasis to a most important requirement.

5. **Arousing Interest.** — Closely connected with attention is interest. Dr. Johnson says: "Interest is the mother of attention; attention is the mother of memory; to get memory, get her mother and her grandmother." If, then, the pupil is to remember the lesson, his attention must be gained through the awakening of his interest. With little children interest is aroused through concrete illustration. The child becomes interested in what he sees, hears, handles. Nor does the employment of the concrete, as a means of instruction, cease with little children. The preacher uses illustration to enliven and enforce the truths he would teach; the lawyer employs it in

his advocacy of cases in court; the surgeon must constantly utilize it in his clinical work before classes. But with the child it is the principal means of awakening and retaining interest.

It may be well here to caution the teacher that an illustration is to be used merely as a means to an end, and not as the end itself. Thus, in teaching number, the employment of a great variety of objects at one time is a detriment to the instruction. The interest of the class will be taken up with the objects rather than with the number to be taught. I have seen instructors attempt to teach the number six, employing oranges, sticks, marbles, beans, etc., as illustrative material. Objects of a single kind should be employed continuously in number work till the concrete illustration is no longer necessary. Without doubt blocks of uniform size constitute the best apparatus for elementary work in number. The pupils must not be distracted by the use of many objects; the end sought, that is, the learning of the number, must be kept in the foreground.

By this it is not meant that no variety is to be introduced. Children like change, and the teacher should be fertile in devices, so that if one fails another can be substituted. My point is, that there must not be too many at once. Let there be variety in the manner of presenting the material, variety in illustration, variety in putting the questions.

Again, direct interest may be secured through indirect means. If a child is found to possess a fondness for a thing, this fact may be utilized to secure his interest in something that he does not like. For example, one child likes drawing; another is fond of birds, or plants, or na-

ture study; another still likes to work with tools. Help this child in his favorite pursuit, on condition that he perform the work which, in the teacher's broader view of life, is essential for him. Again, most boys have ideals as to their future which they hope to realize, though in later life these ideals may change, as we have seen elsewhere. Let the teacher avail himself of these interests. Thus, a boy dislikes arithmetic, but he hopes to be a storekeeper, or a banker, or an engineer. Success in either of these cannot be obtained without a knowledge of arithmetic. Employ his direct interest as to his future occupation in securing an interest in arithmetic. Through this means it often occurs that the interest becomes direct and the pupil acquires a fondness for what he had previously disliked. Dislike for studies is often occasioned by ignorance of them, or by inability to master them. Children are generally interested in what they can do well. Show them how to accomplish the task, and interest will be gained.

It does not follow by any means that a child should be excused from work that he does not like. He must be taught to attack difficult problems with courage, to perform unpleasant tasks because they ought to be performed. Every student finds subjects in the curriculum that he would gladly omit, but promotion or the final diploma can be secured only upon mastering the whole course. Overcoming these difficulties gives mental and moral fibre, which makes one strong to meet life's duties. The training that makes men does not smooth away all trials, level mountains, prepare a bed of roses for the child. Pupils must learn to perform tasks because duty requires it, and because it is best that they should be performed, and not because it may be merely pleasurable.

Finally, the teacher himself must be interested in the subject of instruction. If he is not, no permanent interest can be awakened in the pupils. A member of my senior class once came to me and asked to be excused from continuing a certain subject. "Why do you wish to give up this work?" I asked. "Because I cannot bear it," was the frank reply. Now, it is not pleasing to a teacher to be told by a pupil that she cannot bear his work. I was the teacher of this particular class, and according to the testimony of this girl I was a failure. Of course, she had no thought of personal criticism, and did not recognize that her request meant that. I recognized it, however, and keenly felt the situation. "But," I added, "you cannot graduate without this work." "Then I will not graduate," she promptly declared, showing how deep-seated her aversion had become. After a few moments' reflection, I proposed the following compromise: She was to continue in the class for two weeks and then come to me again, and if she still desired to be excused from the work, I promised that her wish should be granted. She consented, and I began to lay my plans to meet the case. I resolved that she should not desire to withdraw when the truce was concluded, and therefore employed every device I knew to make that recitation interesting and profitable. Needless to say, before the expiration of the time she came to me and said, "This has become the most interesting subject to me, and I have no desire to give it up." There was no further trouble from that source; besides, I myself gained a new interest in that subject. The surest way to interest a class in any feature of school-work is for the teacher himself to secure an interest in that work.

6. Use of the Blackboard. — American schoolrooms are usually liberally supplied with blackboards. All of the available space is utilized. Blackboards are intended not only for notices, decorations, teacher's work, etc., but also for the use of pupils. Classes can be sent to the board to write out a topic, outline a review, work an example, and the exercise is a most valuable practice for the pupils. It cultivates self-reliance, stimulates proper rivalry, shows the importance of accuracy, and trains the student in logical, concise, and clear expression. All work on the board should be neat and systematic. A plan of sending the pupils to the board should be adopted which will secure the most orderly and economical arrangement. Drill in this exercise will yield profitable results. The teacher should give especial attention to the manner of explaining blackboard work, to the attitude of the pupil while engaged thereat, to the language used, as well as to the correctness of the work.

The blackboard can thus be employed to impart and emphasize lessons that cannot well be taught otherwise. If, however, the exercises are loose and unsystematic, if disorder is occasioned, the blackboard becomes an evil rather than a valuable aid.

7. Drill. — "Repetition, repetition," must be the eternal watchword if the material is to be well fixed in the minds of the pupils. Very often knowledge is brought to the threshold of the child's consciousness and then allowed to be dissipated through lack of drill, which is intended to deepen the impression and fasten the lesson in the child's mind. "How many of the class understand this?" asks the teacher, and the children raise their hands in confidence

and with sincerity. The teacher, perceiving the truth and measuring the pupils' knowledge by his own, believes that the lesson is comprehended, and therefore concludes that he may pass on to a new theme. But every lesson with children must be continued long after it seems to be clear. Varied methods must be employed, many questions put, work repeated. This is drill, and it is by drill that the lesson is brought over the threshold of the child's consciousness into his very life and mental fibre. Unless this has been done, the teaching is partially, perhaps wholly, lost. In the old-time school, the child had but few subjects, but he went over these again and again until complete mastery was gained. A few things well learned are better than many things superficially gone over. This is not to be taken as an advocacy of a return to the old-fashioned school with its "three R's." Much time was undoubtedly wasted on the acquirement of the elementary studies. Let the curriculum be broad, but let thoroughness be demanded, even though some subjects must be omitted. "Not how much, but how well," is a good motto. Frequent, systematic, thorough drill is in harmony with that motto, and the teacher should employ it in every subject every day.

8. **Steps of the Recitation.** — The Herbartian school of pedagogy lays great stress upon the "formal steps" of the recitation. A general presentation of this theory may be found helpful in our study of the recitation. The intelligent teacher will adopt so much of this theory as suits his peculiar needs. Originality and spontaneity in a teacher are of far greater importance than adherence to a machine-like formality in performing work, even though the latter may be more finished as a production. Every teacher pos-

sesses an individuality, and this should be given free scope in conducting a recitation. There are, however, certain principles involved that every teacher should know and apply. Some of these principles are presented in the five steps of the recitation, as follows:

a. Preparation. — Reference is had here, not to the preparation which either teacher or pupil has made before coming to the class, but to the preparation of the children to receive the lesson to be taught. If a farmer were to scatter seeds upon hard, sod ground, perchance a few grains, if left to themselves, would germinate and come to fruitage; but there would be no crop. The sod must be turned by ploughing, and further prepared by harrowing; and then the husbandman may sow the seed, and leave it to sunshine, and rain, and changing season to produce an abundant harvest. So the teacher must not aimlessly scatter the seeds of knowledge without preparing the pupils' minds to receive them, else much of his labor will be in vain. The child is prepared for the new by bringing forward the old which is already his possession. By skilful questions the teacher will discover what the children already know concerning the material of the proposed lesson. The teacher reaches backward, as it were, grasps the old, brings it forward, and introduces the new to it. The less strange the new is, the easier the child will apperceive. To grasp isolated knowledge is difficult. Therefore the instructor seeks to remove as far as may be the strangeness of the new material by introducing the related old material. Without this preparation, to understand the lesson will be difficult; much that is sought will be missed: hence the necessity of this first step of the recitation.

b. Presentation. — When the soil is prepared the seed

may be sown. We have shown earlier in this chapter that not only must the pupils recite, but also the teacher must instruct. No recitation should be conducted without a large measure of instruction. There are many methods of presenting the new material, such as lecturing or telling, drawing out by skilful questioning, or by examining what the pupil has obtained from his own use of text-books. The method may be analytic or synthetic, inductive or deductive, according to the maturity of the children and to the nature of the subject. Or it may be any or all of these methods wisely employed to meet different types of mind, and so as to keep up the interest. The presentation must be clear, logical in arrangement, explicit, and it must be repeated a sufficient number of times to be clearly understood and fixed in the minds of the members of the class.

c. Association. — Time and again the teacher must bring the new into such relation to the old that the two become thoroughly assimilated and familiar. Once more, the teacher must be sure that the new knowledge is not merely a stranger knocking at the door, but an acquaintance, a friend who has been brought over the threshold of the child's consciousness. The new material must be thoroughly associated with what the child already possessed. This is done by repetition, by variety in methods and devices employed, by illustration, and by careful questioning until the teacher is satisfied that the end has been accomplished.

d. Recapitulation. — No lesson has been well learned until the pupil can restate the whole theme in a summary, a rule, or a recapitulation. The ability to recall the outline of a lecture or a sermon indicates the clearness with which

it has been grasped. Children should be trained to this power by being required to state the principal points that have been brought out in a lesson. Many object to pupils committing a rule to memory. This objection is the result of a practice formerly much more in vogue, whereby the pupils began the study of a subject by committing to memory definitions and rules. When the falsity of that method came to be understood, teachers went to the other extreme, practically reasoning, "The rule should not be learned before the child understands it, hence it should never be learned." This reasoning is fallacious. In general the truth of the premise may be accepted, but the conclusion is false. Take, for illustration, an example in arithmetic. Let the pupil learn how to work it; then let him explain how he did it; then, after solving many problems, let him tell in his own language how all problems of that kind are solved, making a rule of his own, as it were; and finally, let him commit to memory a concisely worded, plain, and accurate rule. To prepare a comprehensive and correct rule is no easy task, and no child can be expected to do it. It requires the closest thought of a well-equipped and experienced mind, and it can be done only after concentrated and long-continued study. It is idle, therefore, to expect a child to be able to prepare a rule that will stand the test of a close analysis.

A practice similar to that suggested for arithmetic should be employed with grammar, history, and other subjects. Either a rule or a summary which embraces the principal points of the topic covered should complete the study of a subject. The knowledge of the child will thus be reduced to a series of norms that are stored away in his memory, that he understands, and that he can recall when

authoritative standards are needed. To omit recapitulation is to fail to gather the points of the lesson and to fix them in the mind against future use. He is safer in his ethical life who is governed by fixed moral precepts ; he is surer in his language who knows the rules of grammar; he is better equipped in mathematics who, understanding the operations, is familiar with the rules governing those operations; he is more certain of his facts of history who possesses summaries of the events of a period or of a people. Therefore, emphasis should be laid upon recapitulation after a theme has been worked out. To rehearse the salient features of a lesson is a most valuable and essential educational practice.

e. Application. — The final step is to apply the knowledge gained to the duties of every-day life. The child is too apt to think of the school as another world than that in which he lives when out of school. School life should come into close touch with the verities of every-day life. Themes treated in the school should find their practical application in the home, in the vocation, and in the social relations. Illustration is unnecessary to make this point clear. The paving of a street, the construction of a house, the planting or reaping of a crop, the dealing with the grocer, will present abundant examples in arithmetic ; the presence of a creek in the neighborhood, or of a mountain, or a town, can be utilized in work in geography; letter-writing, description, or composition affords practical application for language-work; and the possible proximity of a battle-ground, or the scene of some important event, will supply material for illustrating work in history. Thus the cultural and the practical may be brought into complete harmony, and the school will not fail in its duty towards either.

The elaborate plan outlined in these five steps can seldom be carried out in a single period; but the teacher has before him the logical order suggested by them, and he will proceed from day to day systematically and steadily until the subject is mastered in its completeness as thus outlined.

CHAPTER XVII.

SPECIALIZATION.

THERE is a tendency with some educators in recent years to advocate an extreme of specialization which amounts to individualism. I believe that when La Salle conceived the idea of grading together pupils of about the same stage of advancement, and instructing them simultaneously, he performed a great service to education. "The educational crime of this age," says Superintendent Greenwood, "is too early and too much specialization. Broad, deep scholarship first; later, specialize." Great thinkers from the time of Sturm until the present have devoted much thought to the formation of courses of study that will produce an all-round development and training of the pupil. These courses of study have been improved upon from time to time to keep pace with the progress of knowledge, to meet the varying demands of different nations and different periods, and more nearly to satisfy the progressive ideals of education. A course of study so formed, embodying the best thought and ripe experience of many competent teachers for so long a period, surely should be a safe guide for an immature child. Add to this the presence of a wise and competent teacher, capable of interpreting the meaning and value of education, and it follows that a better choice of studies will be made than the child, subject to his own volitions and whims, can make for himself.

Need of General Culture. — Too early specialization has a tendency to arrest a liberal and proper development, and to take from the child the opportunity of "obtaining a right and broad outlook upon life by too early depriving him of educational guidance." The purpose of specialization is to afford an opportunity for each individual to develop his natural abilities so as to prepare him for the greatest possible usefulness, and to open the way to the enjoyment of life in its largest measure. It must be admitted that there is a great difference in the natural tendencies of children. Just how far these peculiarities should be humored is a difficult problem. No one would desire to fit a "round boy into a square hole," and doubtless many of the failures in life are due to such attempts. It may be hard to determine what a child's natural bent really is. Most children pass through various epochs in life, in each of which there seems to be a marked inclination to some particular field of study or enterprise. Professor Münsterberg relates his own experience in illustration of this point. At one period it may be a "craze" for bugs or butterflies, and one feels sure that the child will become a naturalist; at another period he is interested in electricity or chemistry, and he is marked out for a scientist; again, he is interested in drawing and sketching, and the future artist in embryo is detected. To discover the causes of these changes in the child's attitude towards various subjects may not be difficult. His changing views of life at various times may be due to his psychological unfolding, to his environment, to his playmates, and more than all to his teacher. A popular teacher, enthusiastic over a particular branch, will invariably win pupils to love it, and likewise to become ardent in pursuing it. It therefore does not fol-

low that an inclination towards a particular field at some period of the child's life proves that this is a permanent interest. Only time and careful study of the child can decide so important a matter.

On the other hand, a child may possess undiscovered tendencies that have never been aroused. Generally, no harm will be occasioned if they are not awakened until a broad foundation of general culture has been laid. It may even be asserted that if the development of these tendencies is thus delayed, greater ultimate good will be done to the child. With the foundation of general education first laid, the growth in special and individual aptitudes will be more rapid, more permanent, and more sure.

A child of four years showed such remarkable talent for music that he was employed by a piano firm at the Chicago Exposition to assist in giving daily concerts. The bright, beautiful child, with his great skill and unusual talent, attracted large crowds around the booth whenever he played. After Paderewski had heard him play, the great master took the boy in his arms and said, "My boy, thank God first of all for your wonderful talent; and next, thank Him for the friend He has raised up to teach you." When the boy was six years of age, this friend earnestly advised that he be sent to school. Unfortunately, the parents refused to heed this advice, thinking that as the boy had a genius for music, this was all-sufficient. He thus became a specialist at a very early age, thereby ignoring the claims of general development. The result has been that even in his specialty he has failed to achieve the success that his early years promised. Even genius cannot take the place of solid work and broad culture. The genius who lacks general education is apt to be one-sided, self-opinionated,

egotistical, ungenerous, and unappreciative of the talents of others in his own field. He is wanting in the equilibrium, the stability, the common sense, that characterize the well-trained person.

As to the culture needed to secure an all-round development, opinions differ. I present, for comparison, three outlines by different leaders :

Dr. William T. Harris's scheme :

1. Language studies as the centre.
2. Arithmetic.
3. Geography.
4. History.
5. Other branches.

Dr. Charles A. McMurry's scheme :

1. History.
   - *a.* Subject-matter of biography.
   - *b.* History.
   - *c.* Story.
   - *d.* Other parts of literature.
2. Science.
3. The formal studies.
   - *a.* Grammar.
   - *b.* Writing.
   - *c.* Arithmetic.
   - *d.* Symbols used in reading.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler's scheme :

1. Science.
2. Literature.
3. Æsthetic.
4. Institutional.
5. Religious.

All thoughtful educators recognize the necessity of general culture before specialization, not only for the purpose of bringing out all of the powers of the individual, but also as a preparation for his special work. As to the time when specialization should begin, or the amount of previous

culture necessary, there is a variety of opinions. In general, it may be said that every person, whatever his special calling, should possess sufficient culture to lead him to appreciate other fields than his own; to prompt him to respect other men's vocations and opinions; to give him a general outlook upon universal knowledge. Such a training should prevent his vision being narrowed by the horizon of his own specialty. The equivalent of a full high-school course is the least that may be expected to fulfil these requirements.

Advantages of Specialization. — 1. *Better teaching.* — The teacher who is a specialist in any branch has an opportunity to know his subject far better than the person who must teach several subjects. To know the literature of a single branch requires constant application and diligence. The bibliography of education for the year 1901 shows 319 books and articles on education in English alone, while the annual output of pedagogical publications in German is about 3,500 works. The activity in other fields of learning is correspondingly great. It thus becomes impossible for any man to keep pace with his own specialty; even more difficult for him to be expert in several subjects.

The specialist, devoting his strength to his own field, narrowing his scope to the peculiar methods of that branch, alert to everything new that appears therein, and repeatedly presenting the same material, must become eminently proficient. His subject is, in no improper sense, his hobby. From the standpoint of knowledge to be gained, of enthusiasm for the study, of opportunity to obtain the best and the newest, it is a great thing to be under the

teaching of a specialist. Every student should have that opportunity at some period in his career.

2. *Concentration of study.* — He who is ready to be taught by a specialist should have practically decided upon his life-work. He is prepared to abandon other fields and concentrate his attention upon the one subject, or that and other subjects closely related to it. To illustrate this point, the student who enters a German university without having definitely decided to limit his study to a certain field is likely to waste his time. Many courses are offered by professors of great renown. At first he is tempted to hear the celebrated men without regard to a definite plan for the future. He is apt to matriculate for two or three times as many lectures as he can profitably hear. Until he settles down to some definite course, and rigidly adheres to that regardless of other attractions, his work is desultory and unsatisfactory. If he is not ready thus to concentrate his energy, he is not ready to specialize. Specialization offers peculiar inducements to concentrated study.

3. *Greater thoroughness.* — It is better to know a few things well than to have a smattering of many things. Specialization enables the student to obtain a thorough mastery of a few things. The men who have been of the greatest service to the world in science, art, philosophy, religion, have been men of singleness of purpose, who have become masters of some one chosen field. It is in accord with this idea that the Carnegie Institute at Washington devotes large sums of money for the support and encouragement of specialists and investigators. It may have been possible for an Aristotle in the fourth century, B.C., to have "possessed a universality of knowledge," but that is impossible for any man in the twentieth century, A.D.

4. *Better appliances.* — When a teacher can devote himself to one field, he soon gathers about him rich materials — apparatus, books, specimens, collections — that would be impossible were his energies divided. He will construct, buy, obtain gifts, collect specimens, until his department has the needed material for illustrating his work. This adds to the effectiveness of his teaching, and makes work with him desirable and doubly profitable to the student.

Specialization Below the High School. — Notwithstanding the value of specialization as an educational practice, I think it has but little place in the grammar school, for the following reasons:

1. The children have not yet gained the required general culture, as pointed out in the preceding pages.

2. Few children have chosen their life-work or are prepared to choose it, and therefore they are unable wisely to select their own studies. We have seen that even marked tendencies in certain directions are no absolute proof of permanent choice.

3. The most important feature of school-work at this period is the formation of character, which should be well established before the close of the grammar-school course. Now, the specialist who comes into a room to teach geography is naturally intent upon bringing forward his pupils in that subject. His efficiency as a teacher is determined by the progress of the class in geography. Being proficient and enthusiastic in that study, he will doubtless give better instruction than the grade teacher can give. The end of education to him with that class is a knowledge of geography. The specialists in reading, arithmetic, language, etc., have a like purpose for their respective subjects. Each

will seek to secure a maximum of efficiency in his own branch regardless of any other work. It will be admitted at once that in teaching the subjects the grade teacher cannot be expected to accomplish as much as the specialist. But is there not something at this period in the child's life that is of even far greater account than the gaining of knowledge?

Then, too, the discipline of the grade teacher is likely to be more effective and permanent. He governs, not for the time being, but for lasting results; he seeks to teach the child self-control; he endeavors to inculcate the principle of self-government. Being with the pupils during all of the school hours, he can study their peculiarities, shape their habits, form their characters. No specialist can come into such close contact with the whole life of a class of children, meeting them, perhaps, only once a day, as the grade teacher can who is with them the whole time.

The teaching, moreover, is likely to be more evenly balanced, since the grade teacher is able to strengthen a child that is weak in one subject, and perhaps strong in another, by allowing him to devote more time to the one and less to the other. The teacher views the whole work of the child, and gives him aid where he most needs it. Thus, the grade teacher should be able to secure an all-sided interest and a harmonious development. Again, there are days when special demands with respect to a certain subject are made upon a class. When such extra work is required, the grade teacher, having all the work in charge, is able to lighten other work correspondingly. Specialists do not know the requirements in the other departments, and therefore it often happens that unusual demands may be made by several teachers upon the same day, thereby over-

whelming the pupils with heavy burdens. Hence it seems clear that it is unwise to resort to specialization during the period of life when the child is unable to guide himself and when character is forming, that is, during the grammar-school period. The importance of this end of education, the formation of character, would be a sufficient reason for this course even if the former argument for general culture before specialization were ignored.

It may be necessary to make exception to the above general principle in the teaching of music, drawing, and manual training, subjects that as yet can hardly be required in the qualifications of all grade teachers.

The Group Plan. — The importance of the personal influence of the teacher is so thoroughly recognized in some quarters, that instead of specializing in the elementary work, quite the opposite extreme has been adopted. Thus, when a class is promoted, the teacher moves up with it each year for, perhaps, three or four years, after which she returns to the beginning and starts with another group. This enables a teacher, having his pupils for so long a period, to make a stronger impression upon them, as well as to adopt a broader plan for their training, than is possible where classes change teachers every year. It is also a good thing for the teacher, who will thereby escape the danger of falling into ruts through doing the same work year after year. As the group covers only three or four years, it does not take him too far away from his chosen field of activity as a primary, an intermediate, or a grammar school teacher. The third-grade teacher surely will readily adapt himself to the methods and the subjects of the second or the fourth grade.

By this plan the strong personality of the teacher will have time to make a permanent impression upon the pupils, such as is impossible under specialization or under the plan which keeps the teacher in the same grade year after year. Formerly teachers' salaries were graded solely according to the position held, those in the primary grades being lowest. If this were still the practice, the teacher would object to returning to begin with a new group; but fortunately most teachers are now remunerated according to their efficiency and to their experience, with little regard to the grade they teach.

"But what if the teacher's personality is undesirable?" asks one. No ideal scheme of education can consider such teachers. It is our duty to aim high; and if a teacher's personality and power over children are such as to defeat the aim, and prevent the attainment of the ideals, he must be removed. Our theory includes only good teachers, and we shall secure them when it becomes clear that no others will be accepted. To take poor teachers into account in a philosophy of education is to be content with the present and expect no further progress. Well-prepared, skilled, enthusiastic teachers are the first essential of any school system, and without these all plans are vain.

Specialization in the High School. — When the child passes into the high school, the problem begins to assume a different aspect. He is more capable of self-guidance, his character is pretty well established, and the personal influence of the teacher is not so vital to him. At the same time, the subjects being more advanced, there is greater reason for specialization. The high-school studies make greater demands upon the teacher, and practically

necessitate his being a specialist. But it does not follow that the pupils should elect their work upon entering the high school. They have not yet the broad, general culture which has been shown to be essential, nor are they wise enough to choose what is best for them. In making their choice, the personality of a teacher, the difficulty of a subject, the traditions handed down from the older students, and personal taste, may enter. Surely the students of education, the thinkers, the eminent teachers, who for centuries have been constructing courses of study, and have transmitted to us the accumulated results of their research and study, are more capable of deciding such a question than a fifteen-year-old boy or girl.

Hence, while the teachers of the high school may be specialists, and thus able to offer superior instruction, the choice of subjects and the arrangement of courses should not be left to the pupils. In colleges the tendency is to require the students to take a specified course the first year, until they are familiar with their new environment, and until they are more settled as to their chosen career; in each of the succeeding years there is an increasing amount of elective work until the senior year, when the student practically chooses all of his work. In the university proper, where students are definitely preparing for a profession, they are allowed to devote all of their time to special lines of work and investigation.

A sound educational policy, then, would seem to require that there shall be no specialization in the elementary school, very little in the high school, a gradually increased amount in the college classes, and only in the university obtain throughout the entire course.

Different High-School Courses. — Most high schools offer a classical, a scientific, an English, and a commercial course. These may be modified so as to combine two or more courses, but this nomenclature is sufficiently comprehensive. The choice of course is also an important matter. Children, as we have said, should not be allowed the decision of this question. They are too immature and too uncertain as to their future vocation to act with wisdom and judgment. They are apt to choose what they believe to be the easiest course or the most popular one. The persons most competent to advise them are their grammar-school teachers, who know their pupils' capacity and their aptitudes, and are acquainted with their limitations. They know, also, the advantages and requirements of the high-school courses. Hence, every child that goes up from the grammar to the high school should be armed with the advice and guidance of his former teachers. They have time to consider well what is best for each pupil, whereas the high-school faculty must necessarily decide hastily when large numbers are being admitted. Parents also should be consulted, and their intentions as to the future of their children taken into account. If the child is to go to college, prepare for business or for the general purposes of life, the appropriate high-school course should be selected. If, indeed, the high school is to be the "people's college," beyond which the student is not to go, obviously the course should be, as far as may be, the one that is complete in itself, rather than one that contemplates further study. The possibilities of a change of plan at the completion of the high-school course, whereby a college or other subsequent training may be entered upon, should not be lost sight of. It often occurs, after the high school is

completed and the student finds himself prepared to enter a higher institution, that he will obtain means to enable him to take advantage of an opportunity which had seemed beyond his reach. For there are so many ways of helping worthy students to help themselves, that practically none need be excluded from the advantages of higher education.

In a word, each student should go up to the high school with the advice of his former teachers; and this advice should be based upon a knowledge of the individual, upon his tastes and abilities, and upon his purposes as derived from consultation with him and his parents. Counsel should be sought also of the high-school faculty. Thus, it may be anticipated that fewer mistakes will be made than if the child be left to his own immature judgment, and he will be furnished with such training as his time, his ability, and the means at command, make possible for him.

CHAPTER XVIII.

DUTY OF THE TEACHER.

1. To His Pupils. — The school is for the children, and the teacher's first thought should be for them. During the hours that the pupils are in school, at least, the teacher stands in the place of the parent, and often for many hours out of school. Their health should be guarded with intelligent care. The danger from wet feet, damp clothing, and draughts must be understood, and means taken to prevent disaster. The bad effects of improper and unwholesome food should be taught, and the nature of suitable clothing explained. While the teacher may be unable to correct the evils of bad food and improper clothing, it must be his duty to call attention to them, and instruct the children as to what is right. The effect of such instruction may not be immediately apparent, but it cannot fail to do good if wisely conducted and persistently given. I once heard a teacher in Leipsic giving instruction in hygiene to a class of first-year pupils, — boys between six and seven years old. The special theme was bread, and he taught that no bread should be eaten until it is twenty-four hours old. As a result of this kind of teaching for many years, the German people rarely eat warm, fresh bread, and as a consequence they are much less liable to indigestion. Instruction of this kind would ultimately have a great and salutary effect upon the health of the people at large, and would greatly reduce the number of

cases of dyspepsia and kindred diseases. With regard, also, to the use of alcoholic beverages, proper instruction is the best means of checking the evils of intemperance. If the teacher is "the high priest of the future," in no better way can he serve his country than by teaching the children what they shall eat and what they shall drink.

The teacher should be familiar with the symptoms of diseases common to children, such as diphtheria, measles, mumps, scarlet fever, etc. A dull eye, a flushed face, a headache, a sore throat, a fever, are indications of serious disorder, and the child exhibiting any of these signs should be promptly removed from the school. It is better to make a mistake in removing a child believed to be affected with a contagious disease than to expose a whole school to danger. When a contagion breaks out among the pupils, the teacher should be familiar with the means to be employed thoroughly to disinfect the school, even though a representative of the board of health be at hand, or the community employ a school physician. He should also be alert to discover defects in eyesight or hearing, and prompt to inform and interest the parents so that relief may be afforded. Prejudices as to wearing spectacles are to be overcome. I once noticed a boy holding his book very close to his face, and upon examination found him to be extremely near-sighted. I saw his parents and told them that he should have glasses at once, but they objected on the ground that he was only twelve years old. When, however, they were prevailed upon to have his eyes examined and suitable glasses supplied, a whole world that had been in darkness to him was revealed through the enlargement of his horizon.

The importance of the intellectual and moral well-being

of the child is more fully appreciated than heretofore. It has been treated elsewhere (see p. 19), and therefore a further discussion of the teacher's duty with reference to these sides of educational development will not be needed here. The training of the intellect has always had a large place in school-work, and in recent times moral training is receiving more attention. It is the teacher's duty to aim to secure a well-balanced development of all the powers of the child; — "the hand, the head, the heart," as Professor Stoy puts it, must be included in the all-round education of the all-round man.

2. **To the Parents.** — While the teacher for quite a part of the day stands in the place of the parents, this can never absolve them from their duty to their children. Children are "the gift of God" to the home, and parents are their natural educators. If the demands of civilization have caused a division of labor, thereby making the school a necessity, nevertheless the responsibility of parents in the education of their offspring can never cease. This is a natural duty belonging to parenthood, which W. J. Long shows is not shirked by lower animals in the care and bringing up of their young. It is the duty of the teacher to keep in close touch with the parents, to inform them of the progress or the serious misconduct of their children, and of all other matters of vital interest to them. In these things there should be perfect frankness. While in charge of a young ladies' boarding-school the importance of this was forcibly brought home to me. A young lady had been guilty of a serious offence, and I told her its repetition would be followed by expulsion, and that I purposed notifying her father of the facts. She pleaded

with me not to bring this sorrow upon him, promising most solemnly that the offence would never be repeated. I finally yielded to her importunity, and did not notify her father. It was not many weeks before she was again guilty of the offence, and I suspended her at once and notified her father. When I saw him he asked me, "Why didn't you notify me? I might have saved her and myself this disgrace had you done so." The co-operation of parents should be invited by frankly taking them into full confidence in all important matters. Surely no one should be more interested in the welfare of the children than their own parents. Through periodical reports parents should be informed of the work and deportment of their children, and, when necessary, these should befollowed up with personal explanations.

Parents' meetings. — One of the best means of reaching the parents is through public meetings held regularly. In these meetings teachers and parents come together to discuss their mutual interests and the good of the school. There are many such organizations that are doing incalculable good. I have in mind one which holds monthly meetings at which practically the whole school community — children, parents, teachers — gather. Lectures on school subjects are given, recitations and other exercises by the children are offered, and other entertainment furnished. It affords an opportunity to present work of the school when parents are in a most happy and sympathetic frame of mind, and the teacher is thus enabled to bring matters to their attention which it would be difficult to do under other circumstances. The policy of the school may be made known, co-operation invited, and friction avoided. Then, this organization can be utilized to seek

out and care for needy children, who may be kept from school by lack of clothing or for some other reason. Thus the whole community becomes interested in the success of the school and in keeping children regularly there. Besides this, it has the effect of making the school and the teachers popular. Every school should have such an organization. Besides, the interest awakened for the school and its work, together with the cordial relation that it fosters between teachers and parents, and the increased interest taken by the pupils through knowing that the whole community is proud of their school and is sustaining it, are means of enlightening and instructing the parents themselves. Lectures on educational themes and discussions of school matters set them to thinking of questions that are quite new to them. The definite statements by the teacher of matters that concern the school and their children, furnish them needed information, and prepare them to understand new measures that may be proposed, and prevent them from antagonizing honest efforts that may be made to improve the school. If the teacher can get the ear of the parents he will have little difficulty in carrying forward any reasonable measure of improvement, and the best way to do this is through the parents' meetings.

3. **To the Community.** — What has been said in regard to parents' meetings might well have been said under this head. It is certain that if these meetings are inaugurated and sustained with enthusiasm, the teacher will not be negligent of the duties which I am about to point out. But many schools do not have this important auxiliary, and therefore it may be profitable to consider the teacher's

duty to the community in its general bearing. While the teacher may say, "I am employed to teach the school, and my time is my own when the school day is done," such a view is very narrow. It would also be very disastrous to his highest success, especially in a small community. True enough, the school is the teacher's first duty, and he must not let society or outside interests, not even church work, however meritorious that may be, so exhaust his strength or monopolize his time as to cripple him for school duties. On the other hand, he must not draw himself into a shell of exclusiveness, nor must he ignore the claims of society, even on the plea of absorption in school-work. Such work will be easier and more congenial if sustained by the interest of the people, and, at the same time, it will be far more effective.

Some years ago I became very much interested in a young man, a graduate of one of our best colleges, who had taken his first position as principal of a village school having six or seven teachers. He was a fine, scholarly young fellow, in earnest as to his work, and an excellent teacher. In conversation with me he said: "I am devoting all my strength to my school. At the close of the day, after taking necessary exercise, I go to my room and shut myself up. I seldom go to church, and never go out into society. I make no acquaintances and want none. They are not the kind of people I care to associate with." I suggested to him that they were the parents of his pupils, and that they supported the school. "Well," said he, "I give them a good school, and that is all they can ask of me." It was in vain that I tried to convince him that he was making a mistake, and that he owed the community something besides his school-work. He had to learn his lesson in his own

way, and he learned it before the close of his first year. He wrote me as follows: "I have made a mistake in not heeding your advice. I have been asked to resign at the close of the year. I have every reason to believe that my work in the school has been satisfactory, but I have no friends in the community, no one to say a good word for me, for no one knows me or has the slightest interest in me. My exclusiveness is bearing its fruit — I've got to go."

Quite different is the case of another principal in the same vicinity. There is scarcely an interest in the village — social, moral, religious, or even business matters — with which he is not identified. His advice is sought, his opinion respected, his aid solicited, in all matters connected with the life of the community, and there is no man in that village who is more beloved and honored. He has been in the same school for over thirty years. Nor has his school suffered on account of his outside activity. It has been strengthened and made efficient thereby, because he has won the confidence of his people through his interest in the affairs of the town, and they believe in and support him in his educational work. He is a citizen as well as a schoolmaster, and his people admire him because he is both.

The teacher owes it to the community to show proper respect for sacred things. There are but few parents of whatever religious creed, or of none, who do not feel safer if the instructor of their children is a man who reverences God and shows respect for His commandments. The sabbath should be kept, church attended — the church of his choice, no matter which; and a proper regard for public sentiment as to temperance and other moral questions shown. There is no doubt that the great majority of people

in our American communities reverence religion and its ordinances, and live according to an ethical code. Hence the teacher who stands before the people as an example, and whose moral influence, as we have seen, is great, owes it to the community to conduct his life in agreement with the requirements of public sentiment. Of course, this does not mean that he should practise hypocrisy; it has been insisted elsewhere that the teacher must be genuine (p. 4); but a young teacher may still be in doubt upon some questions, and, in such cases, he should defer to the common feeling. If he is imbued with atheistic doctrine, or has loose notions of morals, he has no business to be a school-teacher. A popular young principal had become somewhat unsettled in his religious views, and was disposed to talk about the matter quite freely among his pupils and about the village. The people were aroused, and the young man found himself under severe criticism. I suggested to him that if he could not believe as most orthodox people do, he should, at least, be silent, and not destroy foundations that were held sound by most of the community. I told him that I thought he owed this to them, and he took my view of it. The people did not object to his exercising the right of individual opinion, but they did object to his teaching their children, either in or out of school, opinions concerning which even he was still in doubt.

4. **To the School Board.** — The members of the school board are naturally the friends of the teacher. They have selected him, and his success is a proof of their good judgment and wisdom. The teacher should do nothing to alienate the school board, either by ignoring them, or by showing lack of respect. They are the chosen representa-

tives of the people, and, as such, should be respected regardless of personal characteristics, regardless of social or intellectual qualities. A State superintendent of schools was called upon by a friend to adjust a difference between him and his board. After meeting the board, the superintendent returned to his friend and said: "You have been indiscreet in your remarks about members of the school board, and they are deeply offended. You will have to go. I can do nothing with them." "But I have merely told the truth," said the young man; "they are numskulls, and everybody knows it." "That may be," replied his friend, "but you ought not to have said so. There is nothing left for you but to resign."

I have said that the school trustee is the natural friend of the teacher. If he is not held to this relation, it will be largely the teacher's fault. Keep him informed of the workings of the school. Report cases of discipline early to him, so that, if complaint comes, he will be forewarned and prepared. As an official, he will appreciate such courtesy, and, nine times out of ten, will be predisposed to the teacher's side of the case. Talk freely of the plans of the school and get him interested. He stands between the teacher and the people, and is desirous of rendering the community a service through the instrumentality of the teacher. This does not mean that the teacher should be a sycophant or surrender his self-respect. "Hello, Bill!" said a man who stuck his head into a superintendent's office. "Has Miss Blank a certificate to teach?" "No," was the reply; "she is not able to pass the examination, and is not fit to be a teacher." "Never mind about that," said the man; "she's a friend of mine, and I'm going to give her a position in the schools. You see that she gets

a certificate." This man was a member of the school board and a political boss. To offend him would mean dismissal, and the superintendent had not the courage to defy him, and therefore he submitted. There is no call for such surrender of manhood as this, and the teacher that yields compliance to such demands is unfit for his office. The same respect that the teacher renders to the school board should in turn be given to him by them. Only when the courtesies are from both sides, only when respect is mutual, can there be continued cordial relations.

There are duties that are peculiar to the office of the school trustee. These are principally external, and include the material side of school administration. The internal workings of the school — the discipline, the instruction, the training of the pupils, the course of study — are matters that belong to the teacher as an educational expert. The school board of Quincy, Mass., recognized this relation when they called Colonel Parker to their superintendency, and their action made them and their schools famous. When the school board sustain their teachers by every moral and material means at their command, when the teachers are competent to conduct the internal affairs of the school, and when these two forces work together in perfect harmony, it may be expected that the best educational results will follow.

5. **To His Profession.** — It is the duty of every teacher to do what he can to sustain, dignify, and awaken respect for his calling. There is need in the teachers' profession of more of the spirit of loyalty, the mutual support, the fidelity which members of other professions show each other. There is a variety of means by which he will

dignify the profession to which he belongs. Let us note some of these.

A good preparation. — The teacher owes it to his profession to secure a good preparation. If a profession is to command respect, its members must recognize its character by securing the very best possible training for its duties. Some claim that there is no teaching profession because so many of its members have but little professional training. Certainly great improvement has been made, but there remains much more to be done. Normal schools, teachers' colleges, training schools, and pedagogical departments in colleges, are teaching more than a hundred thousand students in the science and art of teaching. School boards are demanding higher qualifications in the teachers they employ, and the past few years have witnessed great improvements in the facilities for giving teachers better equipment. Just so far as the teacher recognizes this trend, and adapts himself to it, he is aiding the profession. The character of the preparation is treated elsewhere (see p. 12). Let every teacher encourage this preparation on the part of all who contemplate teaching, whether or not they have had the advantage of it themselves.

Support pedagogical literature. — It is imperative for the teacher to be conversant with what is going on in the world, however good his previous training may have been. A fertile means of accomplishing this is by reading educational literature, both current and standard. It is easy for the teacher to fall into a rut, to become fossilized. The daily routine of school-work, the constant appeal to minds below his in knowledge, the pressure of manifold duties, the depression of school drudgery, — all these have a tendency to make one neglect to keep abreast of the times.

A failure to do so only accelerates the downward movement. Aside from the inspiration and help gained from reading educational literature, the teacher by supporting educational papers encourages the worthy efforts they are making to uplift the cause of education. The better support these papers receive, the better they can be made. Every subscriber thus assists in adding to the usefulness of these organs, while he receives greater benefits himself. The teacher that ignores the educational journal loses sight of the progress in educational affairs, falls out of line in all forward movements, becomes narrow in his own ideas and methods, and is likely to be self-contained and egotistical. He therefore owes it to himself as well as to his profession to support educational literature.

Teachers' associations. — The tendency of the schoolroom, where association is with young children of much less knowledge, and where the intellectual contact is with immature minds, is to debase the powers of the teacher. Besides educational literature, a very important means of counteracting these influences is the teachers' association. Here the teacher meets his equals, if not his superiors; measures his strength with the strength of those worthy to meet him, and here he stands or falls according to his ability to cope with a "foeman worthy of his steel." Here, too, he is without authority, meeting his equals, and must prove the ground upon which he stands. It is sometimes better to go down before superior power and argument than never to be called upon to exert one's self to the utmost. It is through struggle that ambition is awakened, strength gained; and the victory is the sweeter, the triumph more glorious, the greater the obstacle overcome. There is also the mutual help that comes through com-

parison of methods and experiences, discussion of questions of discipline, presentation of new discoveries made, as well as the inspiration of personal contact with those having the same aims. Hence one of the best means for the upbuilding of the teacher is the teachers' association or club. Many a young man owes his advancement as a teacher chiefly to his connection with such organizations. In a community where teachers' meetings are well sustained and efficient, it is evident that a healthful educational sentiment obtains. Therefore the teacher who is interested, not only in his own personal growth, but also in the good of the cause of education, will support teachers' associations to the best of his ability.

Professional etiquette. — The same high ideals that lawyers, doctors, ministers, and other professional men hold and practise towards each other should prevail among teachers. Professional etiquette should prevent one teacher from undermining another teacher's reputation or seeking to displace him. A young teacher came to me for advice concerning a position that she desired. "Miss S. is there now, but I have influence and feel sure that I can get the place," said she. "Is Miss S. successful and well liked?" I asked. "Oh, yes," was the reply; "I think she is a good teacher." "Is she desirous of leaving?" I further questioned. "I don't know; I suppose not," was the hesitating reply. "And she will probably be continued in her congenial and successful work if you do not interfere?" I pursued. "Yes, I think she will," was the answer. "Then," said I, "my young friend, take my advice and leave her there. You cannot afford to crowd a teacher out of her place. It would be a mean thing to do, and for the sake of your own future, as well

as for the sake of our profession, I do not want you to interfere. Never cause a fellow teacher to be displaced on your account." She took my advice, and afterward secured a much better position, which she held for years.

Quite different was the experience of a young man, a former pupil, who also came to me for advice. He wanted my support in securing a school at a neighboring village. The position was worth eight hundred dollars, and the people were abundantly able to pay that amount. They had but one trustee, and he was a man noted for his penuriousness. The present teacher had been re-engaged at the old salary by the former trustee, but unfortunately no written contract had been made. The incumbent trustee had ignored the existing contract, and offered my young friend the position at four hundred and fifty dollars. This was quite an advance over what he had been receiving in country schools, and he was disposed to accept. I advised him very strongly to have nothing to do with the matter; that it was dishonorable towards a fellow teacher, and unjust to the profession because of the needless lowering of the salary the place could pay; that it showed a lack of professional courtesy; that it was undermining a good man; that no good could come from such ignoble work. It was all in vain, and, contrary to my advice and without my help, he took the place at four hundred and fifty dollars. In less than half a year he was ignominiously discharged, the trustee paying the full year's salary to get rid of him. This ended the career as a teacher of a young man of great promise. He never sought to secure another school.

Quite a different spirit was shown by Professor Verrill (*see* page 5), who first asked the incumbent if he in-

tended to remain before he would enter the lists; also by the teacher who upon being invited to an important position, and finding that the school board were treating their superintendent unjustly, said to them: "Gentlemen, you are under obligations to your present superintendent; I believe he has a valid contract with you, and I will not interfere. Under the circumstances, I do not care to consider your invitation." When teachers take this stand, showing respect for each other and for their profession—a most just and courteous position to take, and one that will pay in the end; when they practise the same professional courtesies toward each other that members of other professions practise (no reputable physician will take a case as long as it is in the hands of another physician)—better relations will be established, better salaries will be received, and better schools will result. It will also command the respect of the community, add to the character and efficiency of teaching, and place the profession on a basis commensurate with the labor, intelligence, ability, and devotion involved.

Often a slight misunderstanding between teacher and school board would be removed if there were no outside interference. But if other teachers, or agents of teachers' bureaus, widen the breach, it may result in the severing of relations that have been alike profitable and pleasant to both parties.

6. To His Successor.—When a teacher has decided to leave a school, and another has been appointed in his stead, he can do a great deal to prepare the way for a good reception of his successor, by both pupils and patrons. Professional etiquette would require him to do this, while his love for the pupils from whom he is to part, and whose continued

progress he desires, would lead him to wish success for the one who is to take his place. A kindly word spoken will do much to win a welcome and open the way for the stranger to the hearts of the children. Even weaknesses that may be known of work elsewhere should not be published. It does not follow that failure in one place will be repeated in a new field. Good teachers sometimes fail under certain conditions, and a change of environment may afford opportunity to develop strength and prove ability to win success. At least let no word be spoken that shall hinder him from achieving success in the school and with pupils that have become dear. The same courtesy also is due to the predecessor. A teacher has no right to disparage the work done by a former one. No permanent advantage will come to a teacher who tries to build a reputation on the faults or weaknesses of others. Their mistakes should be covered with a mantle of charity, and effort made quietly to correct them when discovered.

A copy of the daily program, and such records as will aid in obtaining a mastery of the minutiæ of his new duties, should be left for the new teacher. In a word, here is an excellent opportunity to practise the spirit of the Golden Rule: "Therefore all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them." This should be the professional attitude of the teacher to his predecessor and to his successor.

7. **To Himself.** — Last of all, there are important duties that the teacher owes to himself. We have seen that the teacher's life is a life of self-sacrifice, and no one unwilling to give himself for others should become a teacher. But this does not mean that he is not to take proper care of his

health, conserve his strength, and seek to bring the best that the world offers into his own life; for in the possession of these he will be equipped better to serve others while he secures blessings to himself.

The teacher's health. — First of all he must care for his health. Elsewhere we have remarked concerning the physical requirements of those who enter the profession. Here we shall consider the necessity of preserving the health while engaged in teaching. By securing a suitable home, by proper dress, by taking recreation, by guarding against disease, the teacher must keep his body, the "temple of the Holy Ghost," in perfect order. Only by doing this can he possess the cheerful spirit that makes the schoolroom a joy and a delight. How often the bad order of a day can be traced to a teacher's headache or to his bad digestion! Everything goes wrong, because everything is wrong with the teacher's health. There is much in the close confinement, the foul air, the deadly routine of the schoolroom, that tends to sap the vitality of the strongest body. These influences must be counteracted by thoroughly reactionary means when out of school. Hence the necessity for the open air, plenty of exercise, and recreation. Let the schoolroom, its atmosphere and influence, be wholly left behind when the school day is over, and let the teacher abandon himself to complete relaxation. Some time must be given to study and preparation for the next day, but let that be at some fixed hour after the body has been reinvigorated. The duties of the morrow must not hang like a nightmare over the teacher during every waking hour. There are times when he must "take no thought for the morrow."

When out of school the teacher should throw off the

pedagogue. He must not "talk school," "think school," or "act school." There is no reason why the mark of the school-teacher should be upon a person after a few years in the schoolroom; nor does this mark add to the dignity of the profession or of the individual who bears it. It does not win respect for his vocation, and sometimes it becomes offensive. The air of authority, the self-assertiveness, the precision, the disposition to set the world right, which may be necessary and natural in the schoolroom, has no place in the outside world. "Can't you make those boys behave themselves?" was asked of a teacher at a public gathering. "I suppose so," he replied, "but why should I?" "Why, you're their teacher," said the other in astonishment. "No, I am not their teacher. I am merely a member of this party, bound to enjoy myself like the rest, and with the same freedom. I am not on police duty, and have no more authority over those boys here than you have, and you may be sure I shall not attempt to use authority that I do not possess," was the quiet reply. A citizen with other citizens, a man with other men, no more, no less, should be the attitude of the teacher; and any police duty that he may do outside of the school should be that which any man might do under extraordinary circumstances. Then the hard lines that so often appear on the countenance, the "bossy" manner, the hypercritical disposition, will characterize the teacher no more than they characterize any other person.

Good food, proper clothing, plenty of outdoor exercise, freedom from restraint, good society, will not only preserve the health of the teacher, but will fill him with sunshine when he comes to his school, give him soundness of mind as well as of body, implant in him beauty of spirit that makes him everywhere welcome, and fills life for him with

gladness and joy. It certainly is the duty of the teacher to cultivate these qualities.

The teacher's growth. — It is not sufficient to be a graduate of a normal school or college, to hold a first-grade certificate, or to stand high in the profession of teaching. The teacher must grow, and this advancement must be along lines both professional and general. There must be a knowledge of educational movements and a familiarity with the progress in educational thought and research. To obtain this, we have seen that pedagogical literature must be read, contact with others in teachers' meetings sought, and the work of other teachers and schools studied. Rapid strides are being made in all departments of educational enterprise, and the teacher who keeps pace with the times is obliged to be instant in season and out of season. This does not mean that one must run after every "fad," or ride a hobby. It does mean, however, that new ideas and schemes will be examined with a view to adopt those that are sound, and that the teacher will hold himself open to conviction. Who shall say what are "fads" and what are sound theories without examination and experiment? Drawing, school music, manual training, the kindergarten, object-teaching, have all been denominated "fads." The privilege of experiment is one of the most valuable features of the American schools, and its wise use is a guarantee against conservatism and stagnation. Through experiment and investigation new methods are discovered and proved, new theories advanced, mooted questions solved, pedagogical practice tested, and educational vitality preserved. The zeal with which teachers take up new ideas and test them is one of the most hopeful features of educational work. It is true that much that is worthless is

promulgated, but some good is discovered, and this is preserved while the worthless is soon discarded. Activity is better than stagnation; groping for the truth is better than self-satisfied indifference; life is better than death. And so let the teacher hold himself ready for the truth wherever discovered, and let him also be an earnest searcher and investigator in his own professional field.

But no teacher should confine his growth to purely professional lines. He must also know what is going on in the world of literature, science, art, history, politics, and religion. Every teacher should follow a course of reading outside of the field of pedagogy. This will help him to escape the pedantic spirit and manner so often characteristic of the teacher and which I have already considered. It will help him to be a man among men, to be genial and interesting in society, and to view life from a broader standpoint. Besides this, it will add to his efficiency in the schoolroom, and enable him to bring to his pupils stores of knowledge and riches not called for in the curriculum nor specified in the text-books, but which are more effective than either in opening to the children's minds the great things of life.

Thus, while the teacher grows into nobler proportions as a man endowed by God; while he improves himself and grows more and more into the image of his Maker; while he enjoys the blessings of quickened intelligence, accumulated knowledge, and increased power in his own personal life, — he will also be an inspiration to his pupils to lead them into broader fields and nobler life. Then will he fulfil the noblest of all missions to which man is called, that of the teacher.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE MUTUAL RELATIONS OF SUPERINTENDENT, PRINCIPAL, AND TEACHER.

It is not my purpose to discuss the educational qualifications of either the superintendent or the principal, the qualifications of the teacher having already been treated in Chapters I. and II. It may be said in general that both of these officers have usually begun their educational work as teachers and have advanced to their more responsible positions after years of successful experience. It is also likely that their promotion has been due to their remarkable efficiency as teachers. When such is the case, it is a most happy situation, for they will understand the multifarious duties of their own office, and furthermore they will be in closer sympathy with the teachers under them from having experienced like trials and difficulties. The superintendent who has not passed through this school of experience is sadly handicapped. He is likely to be a mere theorist, whose schemes are not always based upon sound practice.

I. **The Superintendent.** — There are two kinds of duties expected of the school superintendent, namely, executive acts and supervisory work. Let us consider these separately.

1. *Executive Duties.* — The superintendent must write reports, form plans, make out courses of study, act as a representative of the board of education, hear com-

plaints and suggestions from the parents, represent the teachers, and assume the educational leadership of the community. To be able to do these duties requires not only broad scholarship, tact, knowledge of men, pedagogical knowledge and skill, but also good executive ability. The school superintendent must be a man in whom the school board, the teachers, and the community have confidence. He must be resourceful, energetic, and enthusiastic on the one hand, and yet conservative, judicial, far-seeing, and wise on the other hand. This is the business side of his qualifications and his duty. There is a tendency in some cities to separate the business from the purely educational work, the supervisory; that is, to have a business director to attend to many of the above duties, and a supervisor for the pedagogical work. This may be done in large cities that can afford the double expense, and it is a wise and economical provision, but it can hardly become general in smaller towns. Therefore we must consider a superintendent who combines the qualities of an executive and those of an educational expert.

The successful general does not lead his army into action, but he plans the battle, selects his division leaders, and directs the whole fight. The great leader is he that is able to marshal all his forces under the command of subordinates wisely chosen, each to perform, with the forces placed at his disposal, the duty that is assigned to him. This principle is true of every great enterprise of war or peace, of commercial, philanthropic, or educational endeavor. Hence the wise superintendent will unite, for the attainment of his purposes, all available forces — the board of education for the business side, and the teachers for the educational work.

Upon him jointly with the school board will fall the duty of selecting the teachers. This duty should not devolve upon either of these agencies alone. The members of the school board are not educational experts, are not frequently in the schools, and may not be free from local prejudices for or against the teachers. Through his examinations, by his constant intercourse with the teachers and observation of their influence and work, and by his freedom from bias, the superintendent is certainly better informed as to which of the old teachers should be retained or reappointed. By his knowledge of men, by his professional training, by his acquaintance with the standards of teaching, he is better fitted to choose new teachers than the school board is. His recommendations, therefore, should carry great weight with the school board in making appointments. Through frequent reports during the year as to cases of inefficiency among the teachers, the superintendent can keep the board well informed, so that they can act intelligently when the time of appointment comes. Reappointment every year should not be practised except in case of teachers who are on probation. With a suitable probation of perhaps three years the ranks of permanent teachers will be suitably guarded.

In the matter of the course of study the aid of the teachers should be invoked. While the superintendent in his view of the whole field, and with his broad knowledge as an educational expert, must necessarily provide the general plan of the course, the details of it should be worked out by the teachers. It should be discussed in teachers' meetings and submitted to the experiment of the classroom before final adoption. The superintendent views it as a whole, while the teachers examine and test its parts in their

individual work. By this means an educational instrument may be produced that is sound as a whole and in perfect harmony as to its parts. A course of study that is prepared by the superintendent in his office and adopted by the school board without the co-operation of the class teachers will be likely to awaken the antagonism of the latter. The teachers also have an interest in the successful training of their pupils, a closer and more direct interest than the superintendent can possibly have. They, too, are educators whose opinions are worth having because of their personal contact with the children, and because upon them is incumbent the duty of carrying out the course. The wise superintendent will utilize all of the forces at his command for the best good of the schools under his direction, and will not attempt alone to carry burdens that others can assist him in carrying.

2. *The Superintendent as a Supervisor.* — So long as the executive and the supervising work of the superintendent devolve upon one man, the duties of supervision should be held as of the greater importance. It is not my purpose to mark out definitely the functions of these two departments, should two officers be employed. In general, one will perform the external, executive duties, and the other the internal, the purely educational work. The course of study, the relationship with the teachers, conferences with parents, representing the schools at educational meetings, naturally belong to the field of supervision. A superintendent who confines his activity to his office, who fails to keep in touch with the actual work of the schoolroom by frequent visits, will lose sight of his most important function. He will be out of sympathy with his teachers, with his pupils, and with genuine and practical educational activities.

a. His visits to the schools. — The superintendent visits a school not as a stranger or guest, but as a part of the institution. His visits should not be looked forward to with dread by either teacher or pupils. They should understand that he comes as a friend who sincerely desires to do all parties good, and not as a critic who is looking for defects. If he questions the classes, it will not be for the sake of exposing their ignorance, but to instruct, to help, to uncover some phase of the subject that may have escaped the teacher. I have brought out elsewhere (p. 179) that the purpose of the recitation is not to show how little the pupils know, but to discover how much they have learned and to teach them something new. Weaknesses will appear, it is true, and it will be found that many things have not yet been mastered by all of the class. This will be the case also with the best and most experienced teachers under the most favorable circumstances. Nevertheless, emphasis must be laid upon the positive rather than the negative side, upon finding out what the pupils know rather than what they do not know. It is evident, of course, that what the pupils do not know will be thus exposed, and attention must be directed to the correction of defects.

If the superintendent questions the class, he should bear in mind the above principle. He should encourage and stimulate rather than frighten and discourage. He should suggest new interests, fortify the work already done, and present the subject in a new light to the class. This will be done, not to prove that the teacher has failed, but rather to strengthen her influence with the class. He will not fail to praise the good work. Should he discover poor work that calls for criticism, his voice will be silent upon

this in the presence of the pupils. The superintendent has no right to humiliate a teacher by reprimanding her or exposing her weaknesses before the pupils. Nor will he make notes in his private note-book during his stay in a room. I have known men to visit a class, sit silent as a sphinx, laboriously jot down what they witness, and then leave the room without a word to any one. Teacher and pupils think of him merely as a critic, and they wonder what terrible things he has put down against them in that book. Consequently they dread to see him appear. Under such circumstances, neither teacher nor pupils can be at their best; nor can they do themselves justice. If notes of a visit are to be made for future reference, let them be written after leaving the room. They should be of the most private character, intended for the eye of the superintendent alone. They will be valuable to him in comparing the work of a class from time to time. Before again visiting that class he should review his notes in order to refresh his memory in regard to the work for the purpose of comparison.

I have said that the teacher should not be criticised in the presence of her class. If, however, her work is unsatisfactory, she should be invited to a private conference at which the defects should be faithfully pointed out. The attitude of the superintendent should not be that of a critic, but of a friend who is seeking to extend a helping hand. Kindly, but firmly and plainly, the wrong method, the weak discipline, the lack of enthusiasm, the failure to grasp the essentials of a subject, the want of sympathy, or whatever the defect, should be pointed out. While such criticism may bring tears, if given in the right spirit it will secure the desired result,

provided the teacher does not lack the capability of success.

The superintendent who points out the evil fails in his duty if he does not suggest a remedy and endeavor to assist the teacher in applying it. He tears down, but does not construct anything upon the ruins. Here is manifest the advantage that one possesses who himself has had experience in a like kind of work. Having met similar difficulties, he is able to assist others in overcoming theirs. He is fertile in devices and suggestions, from the application of which the teacher may be able to correct her errors.

An old county superintendent told me the following bit of experience: "One day," said he, "I visited a country school in charge of a young lady who had recently joined my teaching force, and who was a stranger to me. I spent the forenoon with her, and as I was about to leave, she said to me, 'Mr. M., have you any suggestions to make?' 'Yes,' I replied, 'let me suggest that when you desire your pupils to do something *ask* them, and do not *command* them to do it. You *order* your boys to do this or that, and they sullenly comply because they fear you. The spirit of your school will be very much improved if you will act upon this advice.' She was very angry with me, evidently thinking that I did not understand boys, especially such as she had to deal with. I was not sure how matters would turn out. This teacher was a good instructor, but there was a total lack of sympathy between her and her pupils. Therefore I could not call her work a success. Some months later I again visited that school. The teacher met me at the door and said, 'Mr. M., I want to thank you for the advice you gave me on your former visit. I was provoked

at your suggestion and had no idea of carrying it out. But upon reflection I concluded to try it, and it has worked like a charm.' My second visit to the school was a delight, and I found the whole atmosphere of the school changed." This wise old teacher discovered the fault, and was able to suggest a remedy. Every superintendent should possess the disposition and the knowledge whereby he can aid those whom he is obliged to criticise.

There are many things that the supervising officer should observe in visiting a schoolroom. The discipline, the general order, the spirit of the teacher and the pupils, the care of school property, as well as the methods of instruction, and the progress in the lessons, should all be taken into account. He should not interfere with the discipline, as that would weaken the teacher in the eyes of the pupils. If there has been insubordination, such as to call for his presence in the classroom with the distinct purpose of discipline, let that be understood, and let him administer such warning and such punishment as the case may demand. Even then he should not fail to impress upon the children that the teacher is in command, and that he proposes to support her in the maintenance of good order. It should be rarely necessary for a superintendent to interfere in this way in preserving order. It is incumbent upon each teacher to hold her class in check, and if she ultimately is incapable of doing this, a change will have to be made. The details of daily discipline must be carried out by the grade teacher, though the pupils should understand that she has the support and confidence of her superintendent.

Should an offence be committed in the presence of the superintendent, it is generally better that the teacher in

charge should deal with it. In my first school in a country village I received a visit one day from the county superintendent. He saw a boy commit some offence, caught hold of the culprit, and proceeded to punish him. The boy resisted, and a most painful scene ensued. Now, I had never had serious trouble with this boy, and believe that had this matter been left to me but little trouble would have been occasioned. The boy felt that the superintendent was interfering beyond his prerogative, and therefore resented the punishment. Let the teacher be held responsible for the order of the room, and if it is unsatisfactory the superintendent should call him to account.

While the violation of general principles of teaching may call for criticism, the widest latitude of individual method and practice should be allowed the teacher. The main thing is that the pupils shall progress in their studies, that the discipline shall be wholesome, and that the spirit of the school shall be uplifting, healthful, and enthusiastic. If the teacher secures these results, the method of procedure is secondary, and the superintendent should not interfere unless the means employed are vitally wrong, so that the results will not be permanent. Let every teacher have the largest possible liberty in teaching and in class management. Encourage her to think and act for herself, to be original, and let no effort be made to mould all teachers according to one pattern. The teacher who servilely tries to imitate some one else, no matter how eminent the ideal, will ultimately fail. "Mr. A. has succeeded admirably in his way," said a young man who had just been appointed to a position. "I cannot follow in his footsteps, but I can succeed in my own way." And he has proved his ability to fulfil

expectations by nearly a quarter of a century's service in that school. Give the teacher the greatest possible freedom, encourage him to think and act for himself, and let him feel that he also, though placed in a subordinate position, may assume responsibility in the education of children. The superintendent who insists upon his teachers following his stereotyped methods destroys enthusiasm, discourages individual improvement, and reduces his schools to a machine-like condition.

b. Educational leadership. — By his training, his experience, his understanding of the educational forces, his general view of the whole field, and by virtue of his position, the superintendent is the constituted leader. As such, his principals and teachers should give him their respect and their hearty and loyal support. By means of teachers' meetings, by talks to the whole body of his assistants, and by private advice to individual teachers, he should establish most cordial relations. He should be able to inspire his whole corps of teachers with high ideals because he possesses high ideals himself. A principal once remarked: "I want my school to be a unit from the kindergarten to the end of the high school, to have the same purpose throughout. Therefore I shall secure all of my teachers hereafter from one normal school." I said to him, that if he discharged every teacher in his school and engaged his whole corps from a single class of that or any other normal school, it would not insure the unity he sought; that if he would obtain the end desired, he must be the leader who gave the direction, the inspiration, the continuity to the work. I further added, that a better plan would be to select the best teachers he could get from many sources, thereby taking advantage of the newest

educational movements and ideas in different schools. With such teachers, possessing a theory of education, and with the ability himself to lead, he would have a right to expect the educational unity sought. After reflection he admitted the soundness of the advice given, and has since acted according to it with excellent results. The superintendent must possess the qualities of leadership. Without these qualities success cannot be expected.

c. Teachers' meetings. — The superintendent should call his teachers together regularly for the purpose of considering the welfare of the schools. In large systems these meetings will necessarily be limited to different classes of the teaching force — the associate superintendents, the principals, the teachers of various grades and departments. The purpose of these meetings will vary according to the work of those called together. Teachers' meetings afford the superintendent opportunity to give general directions, to present policies, to discuss discipline, and to unify the whole work. An occasional lecture on some broad educational question will serve to keep the teachers in touch with their profession.

Sectional meetings should be held frequently for the purpose of considering classroom work, methods of instruction, discipline, etc. Model lessons should be presented, with children if practicable, which should be criticised and discussed. Not only the teachers of a given grade should be present, but those of the immediately higher and lower grades as well, in order that the work of the different grades may be made to articulate. It is a good thing for a teacher to study work other than his own. Such meetings can be made instructive and helpful to all concerned, and they should give vitality, inspiration, and harmony to the whole teaching force.

Teachers' meetings should be so conducted that they will not be regarded as a bore, as an evil incident to the teacher's life from which all would gladly escape. In the first place, they must offer something that the teachers want. When teachers find that they can obtain help in their work, they will gladly devote an hour a week or a fortnight to such an exercise. The great mass of public-school teachers are earnest, enthusiastic, and eager to improve.

In the second place, there should be the utmost freedom in these meetings. Each teacher should feel that his opinions will receive a hearing, and that he is invited to express himself freely. If only a few take part, and these always the same individuals, the meetings will become dull. Superintendent, principal, and teacher should all stand on the same plane on the floor of the teachers' meetings, so far as discussion is concerned. The exercise of the courtesy due to equals should also be practised, and the youngest teacher, as well as the oldest, should feel that his voice will be heard whenever he has anything to say.

Third, they should not be too long. In general, an hour is long enough, unless something should arise that is of peculiar interest. Too lengthy meetings destroy the good effect sought, and make the teachers dread their recurrence. Especially true is this if the meetings are held at the close of the school day, when all are already weary with the arduous duties of the day.

Fourth, they should be conducted in a kindly and sympathetic spirit. There will be differences of opinion, but there need be no acrimonious criticism. The expression of different views will have a tendency to throw light upon the subjects discussed.

Fifth, they should be wide awake and enthusiastic. When a subject is exhausted, it is better to close the meeting than to drag out any allotted time. As in the recitation with children, when interest flags, it is time to close.

Finally, the teachers must feel that the superintendent in the conduct of these meetings is honestly trying to be of service to them, that he is studying school problems with them, that he is full of sympathy for them, and that he has a due appreciation of the arduous duties committed to them.

d. Reports from teachers. — Many of the details of the reports which the superintendent is required to make will be obtained from the teachers. He will also require reports from them to aid him in the work of supervising. The superintendent should not forget that he is dealing with men and women who are eager to perform their duty, and who need no system of espionage over them. His visits to their schools, if made in the right spirit, will be welcomed, and the reports he requires, if reasonable, will be willingly furnished. Too frequent reports, such as might be necessary with children, should not be demanded. Teachers are overburdened with school duties and details which they cannot escape, such as correcting papers, reading test exercises, examining written work, etc. No needless burden should be added by the superintendent. And yet such information as may be necessary to a full understanding of the progress of the schools and of the work of the teachers may be asked of them. The information required will differ from time to time, as the superintendent may be studying different phases of education, seeking to correct an evil, trying experiments, making out a course of study, or preparing his annual report. Reasonable requests

should be cheerfully and promptly met by the teachers, who should enter heartily into the measures that the superintendent proposes for the betterment of the schools and the promotion of the cause of education. If teachers cannot accede to his reasonable requirements, and will not follow his leadership, they should resign.

e. Relation to the parents. — In his supervisory work the superintendent will frequently come in contact with the parents. Parents should be encouraged to watch the progress of their children, and all the officers of the school should stand ready, fully and patiently to explain its purposes to them. Some parents are disposed to find fault with modern teaching because the methods employed are quite different from those with which they are familiar. "Last night I attempted to assist Charles in his examples in Least Common Multiple, and found that I could not do it because the method is so different from the one I learned," said a father. A few words of explanation from the teacher removed the irritation which this gentleman felt, and prevented further antagonism.

The superintendent should be approachable, so that parents will feel perfectly free to consult him in regard to the work and conduct of their children. He should be patient and cool when they are angry. A quarrel can never take place unless there are at least two parties to engage in it. The one who controls himself and will not be drawn into contention, is the one who comes off victorious. There are times, however, when not to resent, to submit to bullying, is to lose one's self-respect, and also the respect of the antagonist. "My weight is 185 pounds," wrote a pugnacious parent to a principal. The latter wrote on the back of the note, "Mine is 210," signed his name, and returned

the note to the sender. The argument ended at that point. In another instance, the teacher wrote, "I can weigh a ton when it is necessary."

Although the superintendent may hear complaints from parents, he certainly should not condemn the teacher without a hearing. He will seek to be just to both sides, and to do this must hear them both. Knowing the difficulties of the teacher's position, and having confidence in his teachers, his sympathies will naturally be with them. But if a mistake has been made, or a wrong done, the superintendent must be just. No parent should have reason to believe that the superintendent would consent to undermine a subordinate in order to win credit to himself. His conduct should be so straightforward, and his assumption of responsibility that clearly belongs to him so evident, that no one can accuse him of shirking his duty. Mr. Huling says in speaking of the principal: "He should support the teacher against aggrieved parents, not by telling falsehoods in her favor, but by pointing out the embarrassing conditions, the evidences of good purpose towards the child, and the child's own share in the blame." I think the same remark applies to the superintendent. Every parent should have confidence that he is dealing with an honest man, who understands his business, and who is endeavoring to give the children of the community the best that modern methods, advanced educational thought, and the means at his command will afford.

Parents, on their part, should furnish liberal support in the way of school supplies, give the superintendent large powers as to the conduct of the school system, elect a board of education that will support his measures, and abstain from carping criticism. They should open their

homes and their hearts to him as a social equal, and give him their confidence and their loyal support. If he is unworthy of all this, he ought not to occupy the responsible position of directing the educational affairs of the community. If this confidence and this position are accorded to him, a great deal will be done towards insuring a successful administration of the schools.

f. Relation to the children. — No superintendent can know all of the children in his schools, but they can know him. They should think of him as a friend, and not as an autocrat who sits in his office seeking to impose hard tasks upon them, or concocting different kinds of punishment. A school board of a small town once made a rule that no corporal punishment should be inflicted in the schools except by the superintendent, thus relegating to him an office that the Jesuits deemed fitting for a domestic or porter, who was the official disciplinarian and who did all the flogging. The exercise of the duties of such an office certainly would not tend to win the affection of the pupils, and no superintendent should consent to the imposition of such a requirement upon him.

If the pupils have complaints to make, or if they desire help or advice, the superintendent should give them a hearing. But I agree with Mr. Huling when he says: "The principal should support the teacher against opposing pupils, not by denying mistakes if they have occurred, but by holding the pupil to a consideration of his own mistakes, and by a refusal to allow him while contumacious to discuss his teacher's acts, or at any time to undertake her discipline."

The peculiarities of many pupils will be known to the superintendent. It may be that a child possesses marked

ability which will call for early promotion; or that he is a genius in some studies and weak in others, and therefore demands special study and treatment. Possibly a child is slow of comprehension, and there is doubt as to whether it is a case of retarded development, natural dulness, or imbecility. Again, the home surroundings may be unfortunate, and the teacher in her efforts to save the child may need just the help that the superintendent can give. Still again, it may be an habitual truant, or a vicious child for whom radical measures are necessary, — perhaps he must be sent to a reformatory. By virtue of his office and authority, the superintendent is the proper person to decide these questions. There are always a few children in every school system whose abnormal characteristics and peculiar history are such as to require special treatment, and this duty will fall upon the superintendent. In no part of his work will greater wisdom and judgment be required than in the field just described. He will necessarily second and sustain the teacher in her efforts for the good of the children, and both will work in perfect harmony for the ends sought. But the superintendent, with his wider experience and greater knowledge, will be expected to suggest remedies for unusual cases, and will naturally watch the result of his experiments.

I have already said that the visits of the superintendent should not be dreaded. He will not gain friends by showing his "power to tease the children by hard and unexpected questions, or by airing his wit to the discomfiture of some apparent dullard." By his interest in the whole body of pupils and in individuals; in their lessons and their sports; in their school and their home life; in their troubles and their triumphs; in their aspirations and

their life purposes; in their moral and spiritual as well as in their physical and intellectual development — by all of these means, he will win the respect and love of his pupils. By his genuineness, his manliness, his honesty, his frankness, his justice, his sympathy, he will win the admiration of the young, and inspire them to emulate his example. A superintendent who possesses these characteristics and this spirit can do untold good in a community, and his influence, like that of Arnold of Rugby, will be an inspiration to patriotism, to noble living, and to righteousness.

II. The Principal. — Much that has been said about the superintendent applies equally well to the principal. In many communities, the principal is the educational leader. His personal character, his ability to lead, his broad view of education, should be much the same as is demanded of the superintendent. Indeed, there are principals who have under their charge a larger number of pupils than superintendents in small towns. By virtue of having a single school under his direction, the principal may come into closer touch with his teachers and pupils than is possible with the superintendent of a large system. He may know all the details of the school-work, be acquainted with the strong and weak points of every teacher, and be familiar with the peculiarities of each pupil. Therefore he should be able to correct evils, to stimulate interest, to direct the studies, and to enter into every phase of school life.

In his teachers' meetings, the principal will be able to study the questions that directly affect his school. His school board should accord him great liberty in the management of his school, and he should be allowed to suggest improvements and work out his own educational theories.

Of course, if he is under a superintendent, the principal's schemes should not be out of harmony with those of his superior officer. Although the schools of a system will all follow the same general policy, each school will have an individuality, and will exhibit certain elements of strength, and thus be able to contribute to the total knowledge of educational practice. To secure this end, the principal, as the leader of his school, should be allowed considerable independence of action. Dr. Bertram, superintendent of the schools of Berlin, after visiting many schools in this country, points out the right of experimentation as one of the most hopeful features of the American schools. The freedom of the teachers in this respect is in strong contrast with the ironclad regulations which every German teacher must follow.

While the superintendent will inaugurate plans of research and experimentation for the whole system, to each principal should be left the privilege of carrying out the details in his own school. There is no reason for prohibiting a principal from instituting special investigations with the consent of those higher in authority. Hobbies, however, are not to be ridden to the detriment of the general work. The science of education has made great progress in recent years, but the field is broad, new problems are ever appearing, and their solution is to be sought in the schoolroom as well as at the theorist's desk.

The principal's relation to his teachers should be cordial, just, honest, and frank. Mr. Huling expresses this thought so admirably that I again quote from him. He remarks: "Indeed, what I wish to plead for is a mutual sympathy as well as courtesy between principal and assistant, which shall display itself in the external relations

simply because it is a constant resident of the heart. There are burdens enough for all teachers to bear, which are not of their own making. Let us add no more to them by an unwise attitude toward our fellow-workers. Suspicion, doubt, jealousy, mistrust, hostility, — these make a chilly and dark atmosphere in which to cultivate the flowers of mental excellence and moral worth. It is in the summer meadows amid the free oxygen of sympathy and loving fellowship that such blossoms bourgeon into loveliness; and we all have more to do with the creation of the atmosphere of our schoolrooms than we sometimes acknowledge."

If the superintendent in his infrequent visits to the schoolroom is to guard against making his visits unwelcome, how much more should the principal be careful to avoid awakening distrust or fear in the minds of the teacher and pupils! He should bring sunshine and helpfulness and good cheer into the classroom. There should be nothing disquieting in his manner; and if he chooses to take part in the recitation, it should not be for the purpose of exposing the ignorance of the pupils or exhibiting his own superior wisdom. His close knowledge of the work and of the methods of instruction should enable him occasionally to take the recitation entirely into his own hands, letting the teacher observe and rest. His presentation of the subject may not be better than hers, but it will be different, and both teacher and pupils should be benefited thereby. He should take up the lesson of the day, else his coming will be looked forward to as a period of relief from the regular tasks, and hence it will become a disturbance rather than a help. He may occasionally present some outside work when there is a particular topic

to which he wishes to call attention and to emphasize. The principal's work with classes should not be mere diversion; it should strengthen and further the regular duties of the class. It would be of great benefit to the school, as well as to the principal himself, if he could teach some classes regularly; not too many, however, so as to interfere with his duties as supervisor and administrator. In many school systems the sole male teacher in the school is the principal, in some even the principal is a woman; hence a child may go entirely through the elementary schools without receiving instruction from a male teacher. This is not a question of the superiority of one sex over the other in power of instructing, but of the different attitude of the two sexes towards discipline, and as to manner of presenting a subject. All will agree that every child, girl or boy, should at some time come under the instruction and discipline, even if only for a brief period, of a male teacher. Hence the importance of the male principal having the privilege of teaching every class in his school at some time or other.

In matters of discipline the teachers should find in their principal a strong support. But when a pupil is referred to him, it becomes his case to deal with according to his best judgment. No teacher should send a child to the principal with the suggestion, "John needs a whipping," or, "Jane should be expelled from school." The principal is unprejudiced, his temper is unruffled, he is full of resources. Therefore he must be left to act as he deems best; and when he sends the child back to the classroom, it is not the province of the teacher to inquire into the punishment inflicted. On the other hand, the principal's treatment of cases sent to him should not be of such a

trivial nature as to lead the pupil to believe that he does not support his assistants in discipline, or that being sent to the principal is a mere joke.

The principal's touch with the school should be so close that he will be acquainted with the individual pupils who deserve promotion at an irregular time, as well as with those who need special help. His examinations or tests, together with his personal knowledge and advice, will materially aid in determining the list for general promotion.

Through teachers' and parents' meetings (see p. 244), through contact with his pupils in the schoolroom and on the playground, through his cordial and manly conduct towards his teachers, by his interest in the affairs of the community, the principal will unify all of the elements of his school district for progressive and enthusiastic educational work.

III. The Teachers. — Little remains to be said as to the relation of the teachers to their superior officers. If they expect courtesy and consideration from their superintendent and principal, they should give loyalty and honest support to them. When assistants can no longer do this, it is their duty to seek another field. This by no means would indicate that they should sink their identity and become servile and sycophantic in order to curry favor. Such a spirit is contrary to the whole purpose of the requirements set forth in the foregoing pages. Widest liberty has been demanded for the individual teacher. In methods of instruction and in discipline, each teacher must be allowed to proceed in her own way, and only when there is a serious deviation from sound educational practice should the teacher be interfered with. When, however,

she commits a manifest error, she should welcome suggestions from her principal, which are intended to set her right and aid her.

Each teacher is responsible for the order of her room. The ability to maintain order is a part of the teacher's professional equipment and requirement. She cannot evade this responsibility and throw it upon some one else. While she has a right to expect the support of her principal, and may call upon him for assistance in extreme cases, it is a serious mistake for her to send children to him for every trivial offence. Such a course is an assumption that the duty of discipline rests with him alone, and it would soon cause a class to lose respect for their teacher. Indeed, if too many children are sent to the principal from a certain room, an investigation of the teacher is in order. With the mutual sympathy between principal and teacher, which I have already pointed out as essential, each will support the other in every duty and in every function of school life. Then the assistant will go to her principal when she needs help, and in him she will find a wise counsellor and a sincere friend.

Happy the educational situation in a community when superintendent, principal, and teacher mutually understand and respect one another; when they work harmoniously for the one common object, the good of the children; when they loyally hold together in word and deed, and when each unselfishly endeavors to further the intellectual and moral well-being of those committed to his or her care. For "As the teacher is, so is the school." If all the different ranks of teachers are ideal, the schools will be ideal.

CHAPTER XX.

THE SCHOOL EXTERIOR.[1]

It is not possible within the limits of this book to discuss the particulars of either the exterior or the interior of the school. Great progress has been made in recent years in school architecture. Ventilation, lighting, heating, and seating have been studied by experts, and much that adds to the health and comfort of the pupils has been learned. Besides this, the utility of the school buildings has been greatly enhanced. Many of the problems of ventilation, heating, etc., however, are not yet fully solved, and doubtless further improvements are destined to be made.

Only general principles can be here presented. The suggestions made are designed to aid the young teacher in obtaining a knowledge of the subject in case his advice should be asked, and also to furnish him with intelligent reasons for correcting the evils that may exist. It often occurs that teachers drift along under adverse conditions which might be corrected or improved at small expense if

[1] My reason for presenting this chapter and the one following, on the School Interior, is that a knowledge of the themes concerning which they treat belongs to the teacher's equipment in the particular field of School Management. Of course, the reader will find a much fuller and better discussion of these subjects in works devoted exclusively to them. But the young teacher does not possess many books, and he may have none bearing on school hygiene at hand. Hence the brief treatment here. I have drawn freely from the work on School Hygiene by my life-long friend, Dr. Edward R. Shaw, lately called to his reward. Not long before his

the teacher, alive to the evils, is able intelligently to present the situation to his school board, and to suggest a remedy (see p. 30). Very often an evil is allowed to exist unchecked because the teacher, as well as the school board, is ignorant of hygienic laws, and of the principles governing the arrangement of schoolrooms. It is the teacher's duty to be acquainted with these laws, and to urge the abatement of evils.

To his care are committed perhaps half a hundred children for a number of hours a day. He is the professional expert in charge of the school, and he must lead the board of education and the people to provide the best accommodations obtainable. While ignorance on the part of the patrons of the school may be pardonable, it is inexcusable in the teacher. Where the teacher knows his ground, presents his case, and makes reasonable requests, he will be pretty sure to have the latter granted. If, however, he fail to attain his purpose, the responsibility will rest not upon him but upon others who refuse or neglect to perform their duty.

1. **The School-grounds.** — The environment of the child has an important bearing upon his education. Professor

untimely death, I consulted with him upon the topics here treated, and obtained his permission to make use of his extended studies upon the subject of school hygiene. I wish, therefore, to claim no originality in the material of these two chapters, but to give Dr. Shaw due credit for his investigations, some of which are placed before my readers. The improvements in school architecture are so frequent and so constant that one can scarcely refer to a standard work upon the subject that is not out of date. The latest and best treatise is that of Dr. Shaw, entitled "School Hygiene." I commend this work most heartily. The student of the subject will need to acquaint himself with the most recent treatment of school architecture that may appear from time to time.

Bailey says: "One's training for the work of life is begun in the home and fostered in the school. This training is the result of a direct and conscious effort on the part of the parent and the teacher, combined with the indirect result of the surroundings in which the child is placed. The surroundings are more potent than we think; and they are usually neglected. It is probable that the antipathy to farm-life is formed before the child is able to reason on the subject. An attractive playground will do more than a profitable wheat-crop to keep the child on the farm. Bare, harsh, cheerless, immodest, — these are the facts about the average rural school-ground."

a. New school-grounds.[1] — The choice of school-grounds is a very important matter. In the city the cost of the site, the location, the securing of sufficient space so as to be unhampered by neighboring buildings, and to furnish playgrounds, are elements which make the selection of new grounds a difficult problem. In rural districts where land is cheap, and where there is plenty of room, an ideal location can be chosen. If a new building is to be erected, an architect should be employed at the outset. He will be able to give professional advice both as to the choice of site and as to the architecture of the building, thereby preventing mistakes being made, and probably saving expense to the district. It is a mistaken economy to forego the services of an architect on account of his fee. If he is competent and honest, he will save the taxpayers several times the amount of his fee, besides erecting a building with the latest improvements and conveniences.

A convenient and accessible location should be chosen where the ground is dry, and, if possible, somewhat elevated.

[1] See Shaw's "School Hygiene," p. 58.

Fully half an acre, preferably an acre, should be secured for a rural school. The size of the grounds in the country may be determined by the probable number of children to attend the school. If there are not more than twenty or thirty pupils, half an acre of ground should suffice. If there are more than thirty children, or if the number is likely to increase, a full acre should be secured. This will afford plenty of room so that the building can be placed back from the street, allowing a good-sized front yard, and still leaving room for the playground in the rear. With the space thus afforded, it may reasonably be expected that the children will not be allowed to play in the street or trespass upon neighboring fields. It is a mistake to purchase too limited space for the location of a new school, especially in the country where land is cheap.

One often sees the rural school, like the pest-house, situated far from any other human habitation, isolated and forlorn. I could never see any good reason for this; indeed, there are good reasons for the rural schoolhouse being located near a farmhouse. Accidents may occur whereby help should be summoned at the earliest moment. Not long since a boy, through over-exertion in a ball-game at school, fell in a deadly swoon or a fit. A doctor was immediately called, and relief was obtained. Had the school been isolated, as many of our rural schools are, the teacher would have been helpless, and the result might have been fatal. Then, too, the school should not be considered as a nuisance that is to be pushed as far out of the way as possible. It should have a warm place in the hearts of the people, and be their pride and their joy. Hence it should be located near some residence, and there is no reason

why it should be an annoyance to any one if the teacher exercises proper control.

The selection of dry grounds is most essential. It is the duty of the school authorities to guard well the health of the children while they are in school. This cannot be done if the school is located in a swampy, malarial neighborhood where the grounds cannot be properly drained. It is of greater importance that the site chosen be dry and near some house than that it be located in the centre of the district.

b. Improvement of old grounds. — The erection of a new school building in the rural district is so rare an occurrence that the teacher's advice upon this question will scarcely ever be needed. I have urged that the teacher be equipped with proper understanding of this subject, not so much because his knowledge will often be called into requisition, — though if it should be sought he should not be found wanting, — but for professional reasons, as a part of his scientific knowledge. If all the teachers are thoroughly familiar with the laws of hygiene and the best means of applying them in the erection and maintenance of school buildings, the ideals of the whole community upon these matters will ultimately be raised.

Even if advice concerning a new school is seldom needed, every teacher in the country or in the village will have abundant occasion to employ his knowledge and skill in improving the environment of his school. The forlorn condition of many of our rural school-grounds is a shame to the teacher and the community, and a sin against the children. The founding and general observance of Arbor Day has worked most excellent results in improving school-grounds. Trees and shrubbery have been set out, the

grounds have been graded, sodded, and beautified, and pride in the appearance of the school premises has been awakened. Besides this, the pupils as well as the parents have learned some most valuable lessons in the care of plants. The offering of prizes in some States for the best kept school-grounds has awakened interest in this subject and stimulated healthful rivalry between schools.

Arbor Day is a suitable time in which to interest pupils and parents in beautifying the school-grounds. Trees can be planted, shrubbery set out, flower-beds planned, walks laid out. If proper interest has been awakened, some parents will be found willing to assist for a portion of the day at least in performing the more difficult parts of the labor. In improving the school-grounds, pride and interest will be aroused not only in the beauty of the environment, but also in the school itself. Arbor Day exercises may thus be made to serve the school and make it popular in the community.

Too often the good work thus begun is not followed by intelligent and persistent care-taking. Trees and plants must be watered, fertilized, and protected, walks must be kept clean, lawns cut, and the whole school-yard kept free from litter. Children will gladly assist in this work if they have an intelligent and enthusiastic leader. Thus they may obtain lessons in plant life, learn to be orderly and systematic, acquire a love for the beautiful and harmonious, and withal become very proud of their school. The habits thus inculcated may be expected to exert a beneficent moral influence upon the later life of the children.

"But I shall remain in this school only this year; why should I trouble myself? Little can be accomplished in one year," reflects the teacher. The evil of too frequent

change of teachers is thus again manifest. But even if a change is likely to take place, that is no reason for allowing matters to drift along in the same inevitable rut. What I have said elsewhere (see p. 51) in regard to grading of a school, even if the teachers frequently change, is appropriate in this connection. Let the work be started on the basis of a consistent and permanent improvement, and let a description of the purpose in the mind of the originator be left in the school-desk for his successor. Each new teacher should take up the work and continue it, not failing to preserve the results already gained. Thus, in time, the "bare, harsh, cheerless, immodest" country-school grounds, so common throughout the land, will become a "garden of roses," a most attractive and delightful spot, the joy and pride of the whole neighborhood.

Not only will the pupils be attracted to the school, and the blessings of a charming environment be bestowed upon them, but their æsthetic sense will be cultivated. When the school has thus become attractive through the combined exertions of pupils and parents under the leadership of the teacher, an excellent foundation has been laid towards making the school a social centre. The school of the rural community is the one common ground upon which all meet with perfect equality. It is usually the only institution of public interest. Let it be made beautiful exteriorly and interiorly; let the parents be drawn together to make the place attractive; and it should not be difficult to make the rural school the pride of the whole community.

2. **The Building.**[1] — Too often the rural school is a box-shaped, barn-like structure, uncouth and forlorn in appear-

[1] See Shaw's "School Hygiene," p. 30.

ance, and by no means "a thing of beauty." One has fittingly described a common type of country schoolhouse as having "four walls, a floor, and a roof. It is oblong, and has windows on both sides to ruin the pupils' eyes, and, incidentally, to look better from the outside." Great improvement has been made in the architecture of cottages and country homes, and there is no reason why a corresponding improvement should not take place with school buildings. Some States have wisely enacted that no building shall be erected except upon plans that have been approved by the department of public instruction. This insures the most modern and hygienic structure that the means to be devoted to this end will afford.

Only a few general suggestions can be given here. In the city or town, more liberal and intelligent action is likely than in the country. I shall therefore direct attention particularly to the country school. The building should be located back from the street, so as to be free from noise and dust. This will also afford space in front for flower-beds, shrubbery, and other decorative arrangements. As to the position of the building, Dr. Shaw says: "Some authorities recommend that the building should stand so that the direct rays of the sun may enter as many classrooms as possible some time during the hours of sunshine. The recommendation is an excellent one, for the sun not only imparts cheerfulness, but is Nature's purifier. Direct sunlight, it is well known, acts as a disinfectant, arresting the spread of infectious diseases."

Whatever be the position of a one-room school, the windows can be placed and the seats arranged so as to secure proper light, there being ample space about the building to insure no interference with the light. If, for

external architectural effect, windows are placed on both sides of the building, the light in the room can be controlled by blinds or shades.

No building should be erected without a suitable basement. A building without a cellar is apt to be damp and unhealthful; besides, the floor cannot be kept warm in the winter. Cellar space is valuable for storage purposes, even if the heating apparatus should not be located there. The expense of a cellar is comparatively little, and the advantages gained far outweigh the additional cost.

If there is a large number of children, there should be separate entrances for each sex. In small schools one entrance will suffice, but in every case there should be separate cloak-rooms. The cloak-rooms should have two outlets, to admit of pupils moving through them without crowding and with expedition. The teacher should be able to pass his pupils in and out of the building in the shortest possible time and in good order. In schools of several classrooms there should be a cloak-room for each sex in connection with each room. Further discussion of this topic, as well as other questions connected with the building, will be found in the next chapter.

These are the general principles which should be followed, the details of which must be sought in works on school architecture or school hygiene. Dr. Shaw very wisely remarks: "We hold that the schoolroom should be the unit first to be considered in planning a school building, and that the building should be a number of schoolrooms properly disposed, and not a whole cut up into schoolrooms, whose size and arrangement depend upon the size and shape of the building. If the hygienic requirements of the schoolroom are first clearly and fully understood,

and then firmly held in mind, the building is more likely to be considered as the grouping of the number of schoolrooms required, with halls and other auxiliaries, and is, therefore, much more likely to be so planned as to give each unit, or schoolroom, what the laws of health demand for pupils who are to occupy it."

3. **Out-buildings.** — It is better, when possible, to locate the water-closets in the school building in close connection with the cloak-rooms. They can be better controlled, kept cleaner, and will afford less opportunity for indecent acts. But where there is no running water in the building, or no janitor to take care of dry closets, they must be placed outside of the school building. This will doubtless continue to be the practice in rural districts. Out-buildings should be placed some distance away from the school building, should be entirely separate for the sexes, and should be screened from public view. A high, close-fitting board fence should separate the approaches to the girls' and boys' closets. Some States have enacted explicit laws upon this subject, and the enforcement of these laws is more and more strict each year. There remains, however, much to be done in this matter, even in States where the statutes are sufficient. Inexcusable neglect on the part of the teacher and the school board permits the continuance of conditions that are nothing less than an evil and a nuisance. Many of our rural schools are utterly lacking in suitable out-buildings and proper screens to their approaches.

Common decency, and respect for the feelings of modesty of the children, to say nothing of regard for their morals, require a strict compliance with the above suggestions.

Where a deficiency in the arrangement of the out-buildings exists, the teacher should call the attention of the board to it at once, and not cease to agitate the matter until the evil is remedied. The closets should be kept clean, the walls preserved from inscriptions, and the strictest surveillance maintained. I have seen school out-buildings where filth abounded, where the walls were covered with obscene expressions, and where foulness and indecency appeared on every hand. Neither teacher nor janitor paid the slightest attention to this part of their domain, or made any attempt to secure cleanliness. It is useless to expect high moral standards in a school that permits such a state of things, no matter what may be done inside of the school building. Such evils will counteract a great deal of moral instruction, and render ineffective ethical lectures.

What is demanded of the teacher is knowledge of proper conditions, wisdom in interesting the school authorities to carry out reforms, and enthusiasm in promoting and securing the best hygienic school environment. The teacher that secures these results is not only an educator, but also a benefactor to the community.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE SCHOOL INTERIOR.

THE arrangement of the interior of the school is of greater moment even than that of the exterior. The amount of space provided, the lighting and heating, the seating, the ventilation, are matters of vital interest to the teacher. The health and comfort of the pupils, as well as the efficiency of the school-work, will depend almost entirely upon the internal conveniences. If it is necessary that the teacher shall be informed as to the school exterior, it is even more necessary that he shall understand the proper conditions for the interior. Architects, and even school boards, are likely to give their chief attention to the architectural effect of the exterior. Hence the greater need of the teacher being familiar with the requirements of the interior of the school. When a building is to be constructed, the teacher should watch the plans of the interior, in order to secure the conveniences and hygienic arrangements required for good school-work. He must not forget that perhaps fifty human beings will spend five or six hours a day in the schoolroom, and that he is largely responsible for their well-being. The immaturity and helplessness of these children only add to the gravity of the responsibility. If it is essential that the teacher should be familiar with the external requirements of the school, he should be an expert as to the interior. He should know

just what is needed and why a thing is needed. With this knowledge he will be able to prevent mistakes in the construction, and secure the very best that the appropriation will permit.

A knowledge of the school interior is important also in considering an old building when no construction of a new one is contemplated. Changes to meet hygienic requirements may be made at small expense. Ignorance on the part of the teacher and indifference from the school board are often responsible for the continuance of evils that are most disastrous to the health of the children, and a hindrance to efficient work. It is the duty of the teacher to lay before his board actual evil conditions and the remedy therefor. Few school boards will hesitate to correct serious evils when these are made known to them. The principal of a boarding-school, who had just been placed in charge, became convinced that there was sewer-gas in the building. He called the attention of the board of trustees to the matter without avail. They told him that his predecessor had pronounced the building in perfect condition. This did not convince him; the evil became too apparent. After vainly seeking relief from the authorities over him, he took the responsibility to call in a plumber to make an examination. Feeling the value of the health and lives of the students committed to his care, he could not remain inactive, even though he jeopardized his position. A sad condition of things was laid bare. The open pipes leading to the sewer were found to be without traps; abandoned cesspools were discovered in the cellar, having been covered over with a coat of cement without being cleaned; old sewer-pipes reeking with filth were unearthed under the cellar, and the whole place was found to be in a most dan-

gerous state. When the discoveries were made, the teacher called in the president of the board and showed him the situation. The responsibility was at once assumed by that gentleman, and the plumbing was put in thorough repair. School boards will be found ready to act when convinced of the existence of an evil, and it is the business of the teacher to call their attention to faulty construction and unsanitary conditions. Too much emphasis cannot be laid upon the importance of knowledge of hygiene on the part of the teacher.

Size and Shape of the Schoolroom.[1] — The best authorities demand at least 15 square feet of floor-space and 200 cubic feet of air-space for each pupil. These requirements will be met if the room is 30 feet long, 25 feet wide, and 13 feet high, with not more than 48 pupils. Better acoustic properties will be secured in a room oblong in shape — a matter of considerable importance to the teacher in the use of his voice, and to the pupils in hearing. In a rural school where the number of pupils is likely to be less than 48, the room may be smaller, but should be constructed on the same general plan and in the same proportions. It is a mistake to build too small, as the first cost will not be relatively much greater, while an abundance of room conserves the health of the pupils and increases the effectiveness of the school-work. Especially important is this in a growing community where additional room may soon be required. Better ventilation can be secured, better order preserved, and better work done, if there is plenty of room. On the other hand, the building should not be too large unless there is a probability of an increase

[1] See Shaw's "School Hygiene," p. 2.

in the number of pupils, for the expense of heating and maintenance will be needlessly increased. The building should be substantially constructed, so as not soon to need repairs, and so as to be safe and warm.

Seating. — All authorities agree that the seats should be so arranged as to bring the light from the left side and from the rear. Most of the light should come from the left, that from the rear being utilized only when the side light is insufficient. The obvious reason for receiving the light chiefly from the left is that shadows of the hand are avoided, most pupils sitting with the right side to the desk and writing with the right hand, thus securing free light upon their work, without shadows. The seats should be placed as close as possible to the windows, thus securing the best light and leaving space for blackboard work and schoolroom movements, as well as tables for the primary classes, upon the side remotest from the windows. Single desks should be used both for disciplinary and for hygienic reasons. Better order can be maintained when each pupil is provided with a desk. Both the desk and the chair should be capable of adjustment to suit the height of each individual child.[1]

For adjusting the desk and chair, Shaw gives the following excellent rules: —

"*Rules for adjusting desks and seats — the chair.* — The upper surface of the seat should be as high above the floor as the child's leg is long, measured from the sole of the foot to the under side of the thigh near the knee-joint, when the thigh and lower leg are bent at right angles. A

[1] Dr. Shaw thinks that the Heusinger desk best meets all requirements. For description of this desk, see his "School Hygiene," p. 150.

measuring-rod is furnished by some makers of school furniture. . . . It consists of a square rod on which there is a scale of inches. The square rod is fitted with a sliding arm, having two branches projecting at right angles on opposite sides of the rod, but with one branch of the arm below the other a distance equal to the thickness of the chair-bottom. The pupil is seated with the foot pressing fully upon the floor and the lower leg vertical. The upper branch of the projecting arm is placed under the thigh near the knee-joint, and this distance read off on the scale. The number of inches may then be written on a piece of paper and left on the desk fastened under the ink-well cover, for the janitor to adjust the chair to this height. The chair-bottom may then be raised or lowered, and rested on the lower branch of the projecting arm . . . and quickly secured by the nut on the chair-standard.

"*The hip-rest.* — The hip-rest must be adjusted so that it supports the back just above the hips.

"*The desk.* — The top of the desk should be raised or lowered, as the case may demand, so that the pupil, in writing, will not have his shoulders raised in the least, nor forced to drop the head and bend the spine forward. For desks adjustable for minus distance, the sliding top must be drawn down so that it nearly touches the ventral side of the body, when the pupil is sitting in correct posture after the chair has been properly adjusted. While in this position the desk should be raised or lowered, as may be required, so that the pupil's forearms will rest easily on the top, with the elbows a hand's-breadth from the body and in proper position for writing with a desk slope of 15°. With this adjustment the pupil will be able to maintain an easy and correct posture. His shoulders will not be raised, nor

will he be obliged to drop the head or bend the spine forward."

The seats and desks should be adjusted to the size of the children, and during the periods of rapid growth there should be two adjustments a year. This will involve some little expense, as a skilled mechanic is required, but the valuable results to be gained make such an outlay desirable and wise.

In an old school building the teacher will have to make the best of such desks as he finds. If they are not so placed as to secure the best light coming from the right direction, an effort should be made to secure a change, as we have seen elsewhere.

Windows, Shades, etc. — Too much attention cannot be devoted to the matter of proper light in the schoolroom. The general consensus of opinion is that the amount of glass surface in the windows should be from one-sixth to one-fourth of the floor-space of the room. The best light is obtained from the upper part of the windows, therefore they should be carried to a point as near to the ceiling as possible. Here is apparent the need of high ceilings, 13 feet at least, as heretofore required. The window-sills should be from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 feet from the floor, thus being above the level of the eyes of the pupils when seated at their desks, and not reflecting the light from the tops of the desks. The windows should be as close together as possible to prevent shadows, and they should all be placed on one side of the room only, provided sufficient light can be obtained. Should the light from one side be insufficient, there may be windows at the rear, the light from which can be utilized on dark days or whenever necessary.

Light should never be admitted from both sides of the room. Should the architect place windows on both sides for the sake of architectural effect, either blinds or heavy shades must be employed to exclude the light from the right side of the pupils' desks.

Opaque shades will be necessary also, upon windows through which light is admitted, so as to control the amount of light. Shades should be of a greenish tint, and roll from both top and bottom as may be desired.[1] The walls of the schoolroom may be tinted so as greatly to favor the light. Dr. Shaw says: "A light green gray, as near to white as possible, is recommended. The light greenish gray should be soft and not harsh. It may be produced by the proper combination of pigments. Antwerp blue and raw sienna with white as a base, will give the proper tint. The walls in every instance should be painted, in order that they may be washed. There should be no gloss, and the paint put on should be stippled, to prevent all reflection. The ceiling should be white, in order that the least possible amount of light may be absorbed by it."

Although many things about the schoolroom cannot be changed, the shades, the color of the walls, the direction from which the light comes upon the desks, are matters that admit of adjustment and correction. If the teacher appreciates the danger to the eyesight of children from neglect of the simplest precautions, and from failure to introduce measures of relief, he will not rest until the hygienic requirements are met. The flapping of shades, the exposure to direct sunlight, either upon the desk or

[1] I have seen an excellent shade manufactured by the Automatic Manufacturing Company, Syracuse, N.Y. It is easily adjusted, durable, and may be set to shade any part of the window desired. It is peculiarly adapted to schoolrooms.

in the face, the flickering shadows, however produced, the bad air in the room,— these, and other influences, exert a damaging effect upon the eyes. They must be corrected, and measures introduced to guard against dangerous and damaging effects upon the children.

The Blackboards. — Blackboards should occupy every available space about the schoolroom. They should be of slate, either wholly black or of a greenish tint. Slate is more economical in the long run, than any other kind of blackboard, though more expensive at the outset. It is more easily kept clean, does not require so much crayon, and therefore does not create so much dust, and does not wear out. The cracks and holes incident to the wall blackboard, which are so unsightly; the constantly fading color, requiring frequent recoating; the expense of repairs, —all these make blackboards of this character most undesirable. Doubtless, it could be shown, from the standpoint of expense, even, that slate blackboards are the cheaper, besides being far better in every way.

Blackboards should be 26 inches from the floor for primary, 30 inches for the intermediate, and 36 inches for the grammar grades. They should be supplied with a dust-trough 2½ inches wide. The blackboard should be frequently washed, the erasers dusted, and the troughs cleaned to prevent the accumulation of dust.

Cloak-rooms.— I have said that in every classroom there should be for each sex a cloak-room with two outlets and of sufficient size to admit of freedom of movement at the time of dismissal. The cloak-room should be well lighted, warm, and properly ventilated. It should connect with the class-

room and with the hall, and should be large enough to afford ample space for hats, wraps, and umbrellas, with suitable receptacles for each. In no case should the hall be utilized for closet purposes. The halls should be kept in good condition, free from obstructions, and as attractive as possible. This would be impossible if they were lined with hooks upon which hats and wraps were hung. The halls should be kept tidy, not only for the sake of the impression made upon visitors, but also for the sake of the children, who are influenced by environment. More important still is the necessity of a dry and safe place where the wardrobe of the children can be kept in a wholesome condition, and at no risk of theft.

Heating and Ventilation. — In the old-time school, no attention whatever was paid to ventilation. A great deal of agitation in recent years, combined with a careful study of the subject, has brought about a great change in the attitude of the public towards ventilation. Churches, public halls, schools, private residences, are being built on more hygienic plans, and their ventilation is being carefully considered. No new school building should be erected, even in the remote rural district, without installing some adequate system of purifying the air. Where a number of people are congregated for a considerable time within a small space, there is need of some means of changing the air. The old-fashioned stove with its rapid wood fire was most effective for dwelling-houses, and the open fireplace with its large chimney and its back-log was still more effective where there was question only of the members of the family. But in large buildings where many persons are brought together such primitive means will not suffice. Artificial means of

changing the air are absolutely necessary. Some one has said, "If air is wanted in any particular place at any particular time, it must be put there, not allowed to go." Hence, there must be fans to force the air into the rooms as wanted, and, on the other hand, there must be exhaust-fans to pump the foul air out. Both of these conditions must be met, or the bad smells of the school where many children are congregated will be apparent.

Upon visiting a new school building in the city of Berlin, I was invited to examine the construction. I met the royal architect who had erected the building, and questioned him as to the ventilation. He explained that the air was allowed to come into the room near the ceiling and go out near the floor. "Is the system effective?" I asked. "Oh, yes," said he, "it works very well." I stepped over to the outlet-flue and held my handkerchief before it. There was not the slightest movement. The architect remarked that the flue seemed to be out of order. "But," said I, "I have tried several flues with the same result. Moreover, I have noticed bad odors in many parts of the building, indicating that the ventilating system was ineffective." "Well," said he, "there is no use of practising deception. Our system here does not work, and no system will work unless there is artificial means of propelling the air. This we cannot afford in our public schools because of the great expense."

The unpleasant odor of the schoolroom is not the worst feature of foul air, though it may be the first means of announcing the bad ventilation of a room. Far worse is the effect upon the health — the impaired eyesight, the weakened lungs, the vitiated blood, the depletion of vital life and power. All of these hinder the child from learning

and the teacher from instructing. There is no doubt that bad ventilation of many school buildings is responsible not only for the ill-health of many children, but also for inefficient work.

It is a general principle of ventilation that the fresh, pure air must be brought in direct from outdoors, heated to the proper temperature, and distributed to each individual room. It should be brought into the room near the ceiling, and the foul air removed from an opening perhaps two feet from the floor. Dr. Shaw seems to prove that these two openings should be on the same side of the room, though not one above the other. Not only must the fresh air be brought independently to each room, but there must be an individual outlet from each room for the bad air. The one is as essential as the other, and it will be found that if only one of these features is carried out, the ventilating system will be ineffective. In city schools where the question of expense is not so important, fans can be introduced as already suggested. The expense involved is sure to bring back returns, not only in the health of the pupils, which would be sufficient in itself, but also in the increased ability to perform school-tasks. The principal of a large school that was equipped with an efficient ventilating system, informed me that the air was not only pure and fresh at all times of the year, but upon hot days the temperature of the schoolrooms was several degrees lower than that outside. Thus the school, instead of being a hot, stuffy, and dreaded place in warm weather, was made the most delightful and the coolest spot in the town. The air that was brought into the school passed first through a long duct in the ground beneath the basement, which cooled the air several degrees. If one could estimate the amount gained by

teachers and pupils in this increased power of work through producing an agreeable temperature, it would be found that the outlay for a ventilating system and its maintenance is a good investment.

Simpler and less expensive means of ventilation must be adopted for rural school buildings. I take the liberty to quote at length once more from Dr. Shaw upon this point: "In order to ventilate the rural schoolhouse, the stove should be placed in one corner of the room, and near the chimney. The stove should be enclosed by a sheet-iron jacket, leaving a distance of from 18 inches to 2 feet between the stove and the inside of the jacket. The jacket should be about 6 feet high, and should extend to the floor. The opening in the jacket for the purpose of supplying the stove with fuel should be as narrow as feasible. A cold-air duct should be constructed to lead from the outside of the building underneath the floor, and to open beneath the stove, so that pure, fresh air will flow in, be warmed by the stove, and rise to the ceiling.

"The point to be secured in the heating and ventilating of the rural schoolhouse is the quick and uniform distribution of the heat to all parts of the room. In the opposite side of the room from the stove, a tin or galvanized iron ventilating-duct should be constructed, oblong in shape, having its cross-section dimensions 12 × 6 inches. The open end of this duct should be within 1 foot of the floor. The flue should extend to the ceiling and run along the ceiling to the chimney. There should not be any sharp angle in this duct, but a curved bend where the upright section unites with that which runs along the ceiling. The ventilating-duct should discharge into a large chimney-flue, at least 14 × 20 inches of cross-section area. In the mid-

dle of this flue there should run a sheet-iron pipe of sufficient capacity to deliver the smoke and gases from the stove. The heat radiated from this pipe when there is a brisk fire in the stove will cause a strong draught in the flue and draw the air out of the schoolroom through the ventilating-duct."

Whenever a new school building is to be erected in a rural district, this very simple and inexpensive apparatus should be put in. The good which would follow its introduction would be well worth the cost. Many country trustees think that because their school is isolated and not hemmed in by other buildings as is the case with city schools, no attention need be paid to ventilation, that it will take care of itself. This is an error. If the building is made tight so that it can be properly heated and made comfortable for cold weather, it needs a ventilating system. Hence it should not be omitted in the construction of a new building.

Ventilation of Old Buildings. — When the ventilating system is not put in during the construction of the building, the problem of securing good air for the schoolroom is very difficult. And yet something may be done if the situation is carefully studied. In the absence of more expensive devices, a board may be placed at the bottom of the window so that the lower sash can be raised without subjecting the children to draughts, and the fresh air allowed to enter between the two window-sashes. The child should never be exposed to a draught. The danger from a draught is immediate, that from foul air more remote. It is better even to allow the pupils to sit in a close room for a time than to expose them to a draught. If the air becomes

foul, let there be a short recess during which the children are exercised, the windows thrown open, and the room flushed with fresh air.

Foul air in the room will be unnoticed by the inmates until it becomes particularly bad. The condition of the air will be detected at once by one coming in from the fresh air outside. Therefore the pupils should be encouraged to report the situation at once if they discover impure air in the room. Smarting sensation of the eyes, heaviness, listlessness, drowsiness, headache, inability to give attention, are evidences of foul air; and when these signs appear, there is no economy in continuing to teach; the evil must be corrected.

The temperature of the room should be kept at 68 to 70 degrees. The temperature, however, is no sure indication of pure air. The teacher must train himself to be sensitive to the condition of the atmosphere of his schoolroom, and he should never forget that when there is foul air, his first duty is to correct the evil. Great improvement in the ventilation of schoolhouses has been made during the last decade. There is room for further improvement, and the problem is still under investigation. Hence, whenever a ventilating plant is to be installed, information as to the latest improvements should be sought.

Storeroom. — Every school building should be provided with a room in which the apparatus, maps, school supplies, books, etc., can be securely locked. Lack of such a room is often responsible for a considerable loss to the district. If text-books are furnished at public expense, and if the school possesses suitable implements for successful work, the school property amounts to a considerable sum. There

should be a suitable and safe place for keeping this property, and then the teacher should be held accountable for its preservation. Trustees sometimes refuse to furnish the necessary supplies, and when the teacher fails to take proper care of the school property it only aggravates the difficulty. If a storeroom is provided, the teacher may well be held accountable for the property committed to his care. The children also should be taught to exercise the same care in the use of public as of private property. This is an important lesson that American youth need to learn.

APPENDIX.

MORAL INSTRUCTION.[1]

COURSE IN THE ANDERSON, INDIANA, PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE moral instruction of children is the highest duty imposed upon teachers. Many children receive little moral training at home; they attend neither church nor Sunday school; therefore, if they receive moral instruction at all, it must be in the public schools. So whatever other work of this course is slighted, the part relating to moral instruction should be carried out.

The aim of moral instruction is to teach the child to know, to love, and to do the right. It, therefore, appeals to the intellect, to the sensibilities, and to the will. While all children have a moral conscience, yet what is right and what is wrong must be taught to them the same as other facts. The moral judgment must be developed. This culture of the moral understanding should be accompanied by a heart culture that causes the child to love the good. The moral sensibilities need cultivation as well as the moral intellect. But the final outgrowth of moral training is upright conduct, and unless this result is attained the training goes for naught. The child should be taught to *be* industrious, honest, truthful, obedient, patriotic, and reverential. His moral acts should be repeated until they become habits.

[1] Inserted by the courtesy of Superintendent J. W. Carr.

Civic obligations should constitute a part of the moral instruction of children. Teachers should teach children what they owe to the State, and how they can best discharge these obligations, both as children and as adults. If children spend from eight to twelve years in the public schools, they should receive such training and discipline as will fit them for citizenship.

The means to be employed in giving moral instruction are various, — a few only can be mentioned here. No elaboration is deemed necessary.

1. **The Example of the Teacher.** — All children are creatures of imitation, and are influenced greatly by their surroundings.

2. **The Discipline of the School.** — A well-ordered and a well-disciplined school is a veritable nursery for the training of children in morals. In such a school moral virtues are not only taught by precept and example, but the children are trained in moral acts. They learn industry, truthfulness, honesty, kindness, obedience, politeness, respect, and reverence by constant observation and daily practice.

3. **By Precept.** — Teachers should give positive instruction in manners and morals. This instruction should be given, not only incidentally in connection with other lessons, but the first period of the day should be set apart for instruction in this subject. Beautiful songs, poems, and stories have their place in the opening exercises, but I wish to commend especially the reading of the Sacred Scriptures as an essential part of the moral training of children.

4. **By Commendation.** — Teachers should be alert to commend religious services, including attendance at church, Sunday school, and religious meetings of various kinds, as the most helpful means for the development of character. They should also commend obedience and respect for parents, the obedience and respect for laws of the school and of the State.

5. **By Conferences with Parents.** — If the school is to do the most possible in developing the moral character of children, there must be mutual understanding and sympathy between teachers and parents. The school is capable of supplementing the work of the home, and the home the work of the school.

A list of topics that should receive special attention will be given in connection with the outline for each grade. It is not enough for these topics to be taught abstractly. They can be presented best by concrete examples. The aim should be to put into active practice the moral precepts taught.

FIRST GRADE.

1. Conversation with the children, in which the teacher aims to secure the confidence of the children and to learn the general characteristics of each individual.

2. Drill in sitting, walking, marching, busy-work, reciting, etc., in which children learn the ways of the school. These exercises are of the greatest importance, as in this way children are taught self-control and obedience.

3. Obedience to parents and teachers.

4. Kindness to parents, brothers, sisters, playmates.

5. Unselfishness — sharing playthings, etc., with others.

6. Love of parents.

SECOND GRADE.

1. Conversation with pupils, in which teachers aim to secure the confidence and respect of the children and to learn the peculiarities of each individual.

2. Various schoolroom exercises, in which children are drilled in promptness, obedience, and self-control.

3. Truthfulness — give numerous illustrations to enforce the lesson. See "Children's Book of Moral Lessons."

4. Kindness to animals — read "Black Beauty."

5. Cleanliness of person and dress.

6. Pleasant voice and pleasing manners.

7. Love of home.

8. How children may help make a good school — by being quiet, industrious, polite, etc.

9. Review work of previous grade.

THIRD GRADE.

1. Conversation with pupils in which the teacher aims to secure their confidence and respect and to learn the peculiarities of each individual. This is of great importance.

2. Special attention to the various schoolroom exercises, in which the pupils are trained to study, to obey promptly, to be quiet, to help others, and to help themselves.

3. Cheerfulness, and the advantages it is to one's self, and the happiness it brings to others.

4. Honesty and its rewards.

5. Respect for parents, teachers, strangers, and old people.

6. Good habits, also some things we wish to avoid — swearing, smoking, chewing, and the use of coarse language.

7. Love of the flag.

8. How children may help to keep the city clean — by not throwing paper on streets, by picking up papers, etc., found on the streets, protecting shade-trees, not marking on fences, buildings, etc.

9. Review the topics of previous grades.

FOURTH GRADE.

1. Conversation with pupils, in which the teacher aims to secure their confidence and respect and learn the peculiarities of each.

2. Special attention to schoolroom exercises, in which the pupils learn obedience, promptness, regularity, cheerfulness, helpfulness to others, and the rules of true politeness.

3. Self-respect — the qualities that a person must have before he will respect himself. This will furnish an opportunity to review most of the subjects presented in the previous grades. See the "Children's Book of Moral Lessons."

4. Some of the rights and privileges of children.

5. Respect for the rights and privileges of others.

6. Politeness at home, at the table, on the street, in company.

7. Letters of recommendation — good habits the best recommendation a boy or girl can have.

8. Care of public and private property — school property, yards and fences belonging to others, etc.

FIFTH GRADE.

1. Train pupils to do their school-work without the teacher continually watching and urging them. Pupils should frequently be tested in conduct. It may be well for the teacher to leave the room sometimes in order that the pupils may test themselves.

2. Street conduct. Pupils should be given directions concerning the proper way of conducting themselves on the street. They should be given ways for testing themselves.

3. Helpfulness in the school. Train children to help themselves, to help the teacher, to help their fellows. This will not be effective unless children are actually trained to practise these virtues.

4. Industry — its necessity, its benefits and rewards.

5. Promptness and regularity.

6. Economy and its relation to getting on in the world.

7. Justice. Examples of justice should be taken from the home, the school, the playground, and society. The idea may be enforced by examples of justice. See "Children's Book of Moral Lessons."

8. Mercy. Pupils should be taught to temper justice with mercy.

SIXTH GRADE.

1. Duties to one's self. Cleanliness, sobriety, temperance, intellectual development, physical exercise. See "Children's Book of Moral Lessons."

2. Necessity, rewards, and dignity of labor. Children should be taught to honor the man or woman who works. They should also be taught that all kinds of useful labor are honorable, also that all classes of persons should work.

3. Unselfishness and its corresponding vice — selfishness.

4. Reverence for the aged, for those in authority, and for God.

5. Develop a proper school sentiment in reference to study, conduct, politeness, and teach pupils how they can be most helpful to others. Show children that this is the best training they can possibly have to fit them to be citizens.

SEVENTH GRADE.

1. The family. Reciprocal duties of parents and children; reciprocal duties of employers and employees.

2. Society. Necessity and benefits of society. Justice the essential condition of all society. Mutual responsibility; human brotherhood.

3. What one owes to his country — obedience to the laws; the services of citizenship; defence in times of peril. Taxes and duties — condemnation of all frauds against the State. Voting — morally obligatory, it must be free, conscientious, disinterested, intelligent. Rights corresponding to these duties — individual liberty, liberty of conscience, liberty of labor, liberty of association. Guaranty of the security of the life and property of all.

4. Duty of the strong to the weak.

5. Test the pupils in conduct, to see if they are acquiring strength in self-direction and self-government at home, at school, on the street, etc.

EIGHTH GRADE.

1. Freedom — political, religious.

2. Patriotism — what is it? How should we show our patriotism?

3. True manhood and true womanhood.

4. The ideal family.

5. Careful review of topics suggested in seventh grade.

6. Tests in conduct, to see whether or not pupils know the right and have the strength to do the right. The virtues implanted should bear fruit in the school life and home life of the children, and should control their future life wherever they may be.

HIGH–SCHOOL GRADES.

1. **Character Study.** — Character study should form an important part of the work in history and literature in the high school. All the moral and intellectual elements that go to make up character can in this way be studied to advantage.

2. **Duty Should be Thoroughly Discussed.** — Duty to family, duty to society, duty to the State, duty to self, and duty to God. Perhaps there is no other subject that needs to be discussed more by American youths than this. Again, the pupils should see the supremacy of law and the necessity of all persons acting in conformity with law. Pupils should be led to see that violation of the laws of nature, of the family, of the State, and of God, brings suffering, and in many instances destruction. This needs to be enforced by numerous examples.

3. **Self-control and Self-direction.** — These subjects need to be taught not so much by precept as by practice. Pupils need special and constant drill in order that habits of self-control and self-direction may become thoroughly fixed. The principal of the high school and every teacher

should give special attention to the teaching of this subject.

4. **Respect for and Obedience to Law.** — This subject should be taught so thoroughly by precept and example that all pupils who go through high school will learn it. The aim of the school should be to train pupils not only to obey the law, but to take pleasure in doing so.

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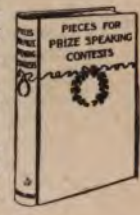

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-4-

Ends of punishment

1- reform of wrong doer
2- to deter others from doing wrong (fear)
3- to condemn wrong doing i.e to express the judgment of rightful authority as to the wrongfull act.

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